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Medieval and Modern History

ITS FORMATIVE CAUSES AND BROAD MOVEMENTS

BY

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WITH MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

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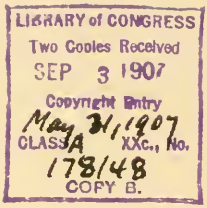

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PREFACE.

Every text-book, and especially a text-book of Medieval and Modern History, should have some individuality of its own to which it is important at the outset to call the reader's attention.

It was once remarked by Lord Acton that a student of history should direct his attention to the discovery of fundamental causes and of general laws, and not merely to the phenomena of events or even a series of events. This suggestion has been followed by the writer of the present treatise. He has not confined his narrative to the movements of armies or to the sequence of political events; it has been his purpose rather to impart a sound knowledge of the nature of institutions and of the economic, social, and religious causes of historical events. He has also attempted to give clear ideas of the broad movements of history and of the relations of such movements. By this means the writer has hoped to make the study of history as truly scientific as are the subjects of chemistry or astronomy, in which all phenomena are constantly traced to certain general laws.

Closely connected with this treatment of the subject matter of history is the importance attached to the inter-action of Church and State, which is here so often insisted upon that it has been thought proper to place at the end of the book a list of all those sections which deal with this relation of ecclesiastical and political elements.

It is hoped by this means to enable the student more fully to comprehend the existing ecclesiastical and secular institutions, and to make him better able to use his knowledge of the past so as to interpret the present and to forecast the future.

These purposes can be accomplished only when the student

sees that all events, however un-related by time and place, are brought into harmonious relation by constant and universal laws.

Special attention has been given to the treatment of English history. It is of the highest importance that Americans should become familiar with the main facts in the history of the English people, especially of the growth of their constitution and laws, which explain so much that is to be found in the Constitution and custom of the Republic of the United States. The usual practice of introducing large splashes of English history into the middle of chapters in a work on general history, is a great hindrance to logical continuity. This difficulty has been obviated by placing at the end of certain chapters sections dealing entirely with English history.

Finally the author frankly acknowledges that he has given a fuller consideration to the affairs of the Church and its relations to the State than is to be found in most histories of the medieval period. This has been done advisedly. Church and State were the two chief inter-acting forces of the Middle Ages and their history serves to explain in large part the present political and social condition of the nations in Europe. It is believed that this very feature will make the book highly acceptable to many institutions of learning and of great value to the general reader.

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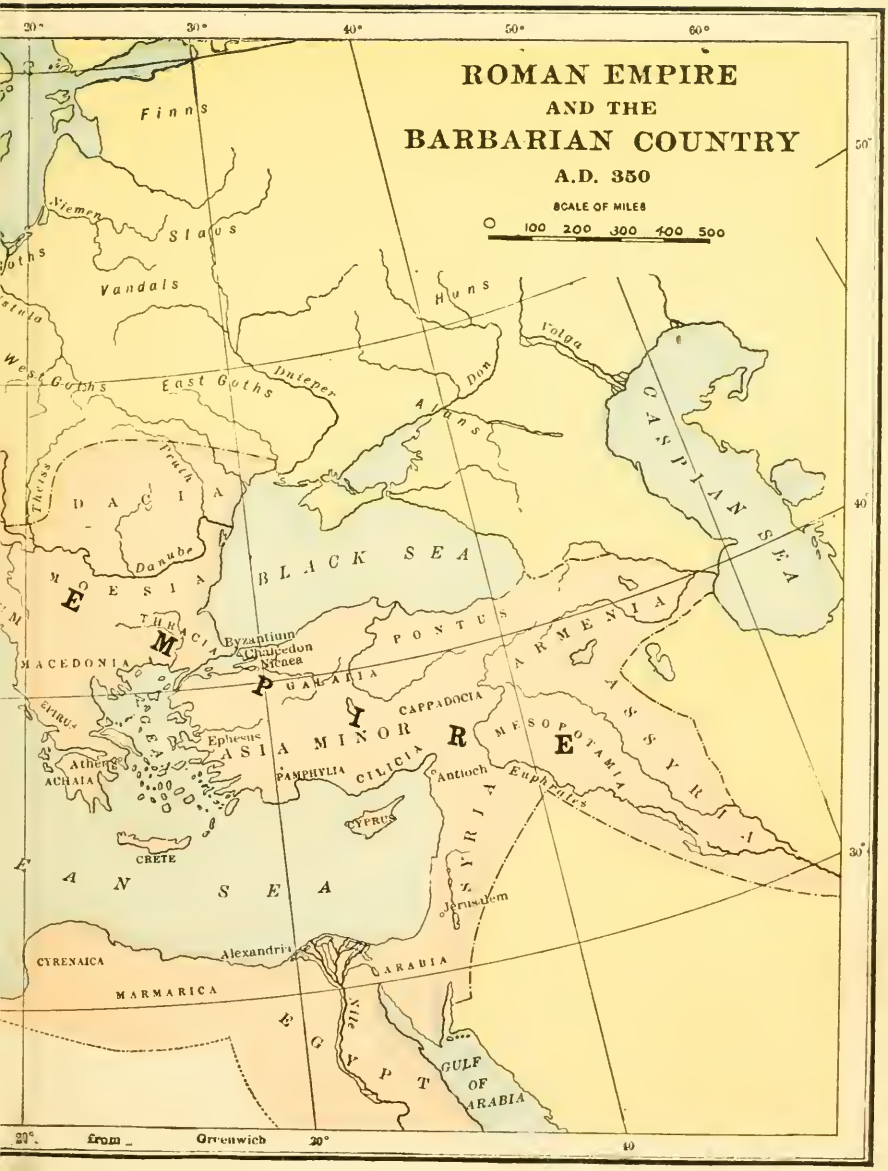
ROMAN EMPIRE
AND THE
BARBARIAN COUNTRY
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Nicæa
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MACEDONIA
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CAPPADOCIA
ASSYRIA
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MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THE DAWN OF MEDIEVAL HISTORY

1. **Condition of the Roman Empire.**— From the first century of the Christian era down to the middle of the third, Roman power and civilization had diffused peace and prosperity through the civilized world. Rome, under the unifying authority of her emperors, had been increasing outwardly and strengthening herself within. The provinces that had been conquered by the Roman republic were united to the imperial city by the powerful ties of a just and sympathetic administration. The provincial governors, who, by their tyranny and extortion, had alienated the inhabitants of the provinces, were degraded from the power that they had so much abused. Under the direct personal control of the emperor, taxes were quickly lessened and the people rejoiced in their political privileges and rising material prosperity.

2. **Extent of the Roman Empire.**— The Roman empire had also gained in extension. The conquest of Gaul had been fully completed, and under the emperor Claudian and his successors England also had been brought under Roman rule. From the borders of Persia in the east to the white shores of England in the west, and from the German forests

in the north to the plains of Africa in the south, the eagles of the Roman standard floated peacefully and powerfully. Roman civilization, Roman literature, and above all, Roman law with all its justice and majesty, reigned everywhere supreme.

3. **The German Frontier.**— There were, however, two frontiers beyond which the power of Rome had failed to establish itself. Between the Rhine and the Elbe were the Germans — wild, fierce, and barbarous, but, as we gather from the commentaries of Cæsar, possessing some rudimentary notions of government and order. They retained all the bodily strength and physical prowess of barbarism, and in their sovereign assemblies of the people, we see the germs of the highest type of civilized government. In vain had the trained Roman soldiers, under skilled officers, crossed the Rhine and even established military outposts and forts in the heart of the enemy's country. They had never succeeded in maintaining their position, and before the end of the reign of Tiberius it was recognized that the Rhine was a natural and an unyielding frontier.

4. **The Eastern Frontier.**— There was also in the east a frontier which had been a successful barrier to the march of Roman power. Already, in the time of Cæsar, the Romans under Crassus, had received a severe defeat at the hands of the Parthians, and the combined forces of Roman arms and Roman diplomacy had failed to effect the conquest of the Parthian empire or to influence its civilization.

Danger therefore threatened the Roman power both on the east from the Parthians and on the north from the Germans. But the greater peril was from the Germans who were in all the vigor of a new and rising civilization, and whose natural restlessness was increased by over-population and the pressure of other wild tribes to the eastward.

5. **Decay of the old Roman Character.**— Rome might still have survived these perils, had there not been at work other disintegrating forces — forces invisible indeed, but on that account the more insidious and destructive.

The real strength of a nation lies not in its armies, but in the virtue and fortitude of its citizens. Mars, who had been from time immemorial the favorite god of the Roman people, was the deity presiding over war and agriculture, and the corresponding typical virtues of the early Roman were the stern fortitude of the soldier, and the simplicity of the shepherd. The result was a type of character distinguished by that honest manliness which places its constant trust in the "truth that prevails." But this character was fast being undermined. How far the introduction of Greek civilization, then in its decadence, was responsible for this, it is hard to say. The actual causes of Roman decadence seem to have arisen from within. The education of the Roman youth was no longer what it had been. The severe, almost unlimited authority of the father over the child had been relaxed partly by law, partly by custom. The family was no longer the training-school of the virtues of fortitude and respect for authority. The foundations of self-reliance and vigorous initiative were removed, and, on the other hand, the manifold temptations of an advanced and luxurious civilization were multiplying. Consequent upon this was the decay of discipline in the Roman army. The family was the recruiting ground of the state, and the defects of the one soon became the defects of the other. So unruly had the Roman legions become, that they made and unmade even the emperors themselves.

6. **Political Decay.**— In addition to these social causes of decay, there were others of a political character.

The Roman empire was not only large and unwieldy, but

it embraced many peoples, of different racial characteristics. It is admitted in our times that the influences of physical environment have done much to make the English, the French, the Germans, and the other modern European nations what they actually are; the same forces must certainly have been at work in the Roman empire exerting a strong disintegrating influence. Moreover, the constitutional machinery at home was inadequate to deal with the new problems constantly arising in every part of the empire. Even if there had been a network of telegraph lines connecting the ruling emperor with his far off subjects, the task of government would have been difficult. Nor could a hierarchy of officials cope with the difficulty, where the material distance between the members of the hierarchy was so great. One link, indeed, there had been between the emperor and the lowest of his subjects, and that was the worship of the divinity of the emperor. Odious, indeed, must have been the personality of such a tyrant as Nero, yet when he walked from his palace into the temple of Castor and Pollux and stood between the statues of the twin gods, the human element, for the time being, was swallowed up in belief that he was the descendant of the gods, and that after death he himself would be deified. The religious element which sanctioned the payment of divine homage to the emperor, contributed for a considerable length of time to imperial prestige and influence. But various causes were now undermining the sacred element, the authority of the emperor. Faith in the old pagan gods was fast declining. Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, and other familiar names no longer represented veritable deities, but rather abstract entities or empty philosophical conceptions exerting no active influence on the minds of the people. With the decay of religious belief, came also the decay of imperial prestige.

It was evident that the Roman Empire must soon either undergo some radical alteration, or cease to exist.

7. **Imperial Succession.**— The danger was brought to a head by the want of any recognized rule of imperial succession. Constitutionally, the office of emperor was elective, not hereditary. The election was theoretically in the hands of the Roman people, but practically it was in the hands of the soldiers, and the subject of their choice was either some favorite general, or some one who had endeared himself to them by the length of his purse. At every new succession there arose disturbances and seditions.

8. **Division of the Empire.**— But in the year 284 a reforming emperor appeared, who strove not only to cope with the immediate evil, but also to organize the empire on a new and more durable basis. The plan of Diocletian was to give strength to the imperial organization by a process of division. There were to be two emperors instead of one — to be called Augusti; and thus the name, Augustus, became a title of office and not, as formerly, a title of honor. These two emperors had separate spheres of jurisdiction, one presiding over the eastern, the other over the western part of the empire; a division suggested mainly by geographical conditions. Disputes regarding succession were to be avoided, by authorizing each emperor to choose an assistant called a Cæsar, who was to have the natural right of succession.

9. **Prefectures and Dioceses.**— This process of division was carried into still further detail. The whole empire was divided into four prefectures, ruled over by their respective prefects. First, the prefecture of Gaul, including England, ruled by a resident prefect at Treves; second, the prefecture of the east, including Syria and Egypt; third, the prefecture of Illyria; and fourth, the prefecture of Italy, which included northeastern Africa and the Islands. These four prefectures were subdivided into dioceses, and these again into provinces,

which were now more numerous and smaller, than the provinces that had previously existed. The names province and diocese are familiar to most people as names of ecclesiastical divisions, and it is interesting to note that these names were first used by Diocletian in designating the different units of civil administration, and that they were afterwards incorporated into the ecclesiastical system by the Church.

There have been writers who have attributed to this process of division the dissolution of the Roman empire. But the evils which had to be overcome were overwhelming, and there can be no doubt that a hierarchy of officials, bound by ties of fidelity to a central ruler, was the best form of government that could have been devised at the time.

Moreover, it was clearly an attempt to render the centralizing influence of the imperial authority as powerful as possible. Local liberty and local government were curtailed, and the emperor, at the head of a vast body of officials, conducted the administration of all. The government was in fact bureaucratic. It was like the government of Louis XIV in France, or like that of the emperor of Russia at the present day, administered by officials who carried out a vexatious and minute system of taxation, and who often interfered with local traditions and private affairs. This system, with its economic evils, tended to defeat the attempts of the emperor at reform.

10. **Diocletian's Policy Towards the Christians.**— Diocletian made a mistake in his policy toward the Christians. They had become a power throughout the empire. It is true that Christianity had been a prohibited religion from the time of Domitian; yet the attitude of the emperors had been generally that of passive opposition, while Hadrian and Antoninus had even tolerated the Christians. What persecution there had been was local in its effect, and arose from a cer-

tain vague class prejudice. By the time of Diocletian, Christianity had assumed an importance that seemed to demand some definite policy on the part of the state. The settled purpose of Diocletian was to restore the imperial prestige. But the doctrines of the Christians militated against the belief in the divinity of the emperor, which had contributed so much to establish this imperial prestige. The result was the Diocletian persecutions, which were pursued with a systematic and relentless ferocity unparalleled in the history of the Church. The persecution, however, failed in its purpose.

11. **The Emperor Constantine.**— Among the first to recognize the futility of seeking to exterminate a large body of men scattered over so large an area and constantly multiplying by fresh conversions, was Constantine, who ascended the imperial throne in 307 A. D. This date is memorable, not only for the emperor's recognition of Christianity, but also for his further attempts to keep together an empire on the verge of disssolution. He saw that the Christian religion was too widespread, endowed with too much vitality, to be crushed, while, on the other hand, it might serve as a new and enduring link between the scattered portions of the empire. Moreover, his own conversion to the Christian faith dictated a policy not only of toleration, but of practical support.

12. **Establishment of Christianity.**— The most conspicuous feature perhaps of the reign of Constantine was the outward and visible progress of the Church, which was directly attributable to his fostering care. He compensated as far as possible all who had been persecuted on account of their Christianity. He gave the sanction of the law to all manumissions of slaves made in the churches. He released the Christian clergy from certain odious political duties, and the Christian churches from the payment of taxes. The new

city of Constantinople, which was called after him, was dedicated to the Virgin. And the crowning triumph of his orthodoxy was the first universal council of Nicea, held under his special auspices. This council set forth the principal tenets of the Christian faith, and condemned the theory of Arianism.

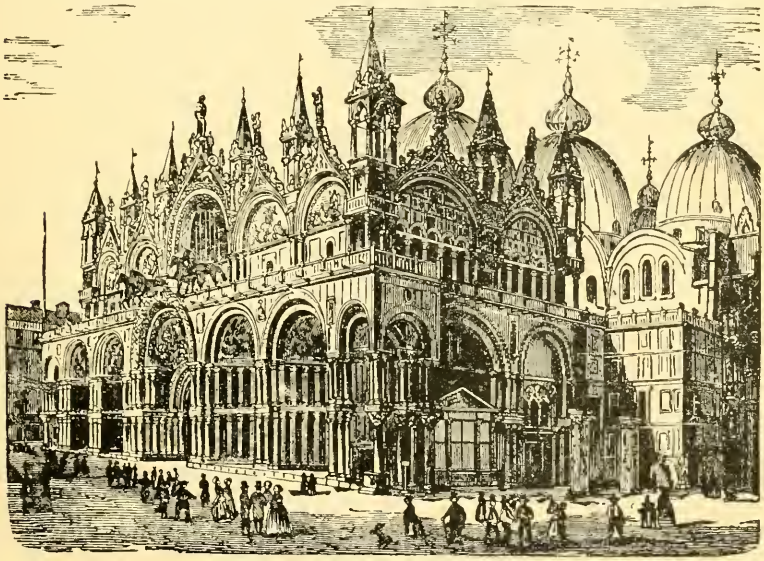
Though this policy of assimilating instead of seeking to destroy the Christian religion, was thus opposed to the policy of Diocletian, yet it was certainly directed toward accomplishing the ulterior end of that policy.

13. **Change of the Imperial Residence.**— The republican atmosphere of Rome was hardly suited to an emperor with ideas of a strong, central government. About the year 328 he began to build a new town on the site of the old Greek town of Byzantium. There he could be far removed from the trammelling traditions of the dual system of government instituted by Augustus, in which the senate was supposed to be a partner with the emperor. Apart from these considerations, the new capital was in a position of great natural strength, and from it the emperor could strike more easily at his enemies, the Persians in the east, and the Goths in the north.

14. **Magnificence of Constantinople.**— The new city soon began to rival the old in the size and splendor of its new buildings. It soon became the center of a new style of architecture, called Byzantine — a style which was prevalent in Italy up to the fifteenth century, and survives still in Russian architecture. Its chief features are the round arch, the circle and the cross, the various ornamental shapes of the capitals of the pillars, the abundance of large spaces with mere surface ornament, and the combined use of rough stone work with more precious materials. The most conspicuous

examples of this style are the Church of Santa Sophia, erected by Justinian in Constantinople itself, and the Church of St. Mark's in Venice.

15. **Display of Imperial Power.**— But the material beauty of the new city and its imposing magnificence were but a reflection of the moral and social splendor that Constantine



The Cathedral of St. Mark in Venice. First built in 813; destroyed by fire in 976 and rebuilt in 1071. The main edifice is Byzantine, but Gothic additions were made in the 14th century and Renaissance alterations in the 17th century. The material is brick encrusted with delicately colored marbles richly carved.

introduced into his new court. The senate that he formed and the two consuls were such only in name, and were mere appendages of imperial dignity. The emperor was the sole, supreme lord and master; his wish was law, and all other dignity or importance was derived only from personal contact with him, and from personal service duly rendered. In this as in other matters, with the exception of his attitude towards the Christians, he was carrying out the policy of

Diocletian. The process of division was still further developed, and he decreed that after his death, the empire should be divided among his three sons.

16. **Failure of Imperial Power.**— All the efforts, however, both of pagan Diocletian and Christian Constantine were fruitless. The Roman empire was too vast. The problem of governing such widely scattered people of different races and provincial characteristics was too much for any policy. Even if some constitution had been constructed suitable in theory, the Roman people had already lost those virtues that had given to Rome the reins of power and dominion.

And while the Roman empire was becoming internally weaker every day, it was from without subject to violent attacks. In the north there were the German tribes, a people young and vigorous in body and in spirit; and during the third and fourth centuries these German tribes, whom Cæsar and succeeding emperors had failed to subdue, poured down upon the Roman Empire. They did not, however, wholly destroy it, but united their rough tribal traditions of liberty and justice to all that was best in the Rome of the past.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

General condition of the Roman Empire in the third century — Extent of the Roman Empire — Decay of the Roman Empire arising from moral, political and religious causes — Reforms of Diocletian and his persecution of the Christians — Reforms of Constantine and his patronage of the Christians — Constantinople; Byzantine architecture — Failure of imperial attempts to maintain the empire.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

Duruy, *Middle Ages;* Robinson, *Readings in European History;* Dill, *Roman Society to the last of the Western Empire;* Bury, *Later Roman Empire;* West, *Ancient History to the Death of Charlemagne;* Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire;* Crevier, *Histoire des Empereurs,*

Romains depuis Auguste à Constantin; MOREY, *Roman Law;* HODGKIN, *Theodosius;* JONES, *Civilization During the Middle Ages;* ADAMS, *Civilization During the Middle Ages;* MONTESQUIEU, *Considerations sur les Causes de la Grandeur des Romains et de leur decadence;* BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire;* HODGKIN, *Theodoric;* OMAN, *Dark Ages;* ALZOG, *Church History;* RAMSAY, *The Church in the Roman Empire.*

CHAPTER II

THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS

17. **The German Invaders.**— The German tribes who began to move in the direction of the Roman Empire occupied Scandinavia and the land that lies between the Rhine on the west, the Vistula on the east, the Baltic on the north, and the Danube on the south.

The Germans were divided into three great branches. First, the Northern Germans, who were afterwards known as Northmen and later as Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes; second, the West Germans, who included the Franks and Saxons, and third, the East Germans, who were further subdivided into Goths and Vandals.

18. **Character of the Germans.**— Tacitus, a Roman writer who died about 115 A. D., gives a graphic description of the manners, customs, and political constitution of the West Germans. He says that in personal appearance they were remarkable for their size, red hair, and general ferocity of aspect. From him we also gather that their chief occupations were cattle-raising, agriculture, hunting, and war. Like the peasants in the Russian villages of to-day, they held their land in common, making a redistribution of it every year. They paid great reverence to the priest, who was very often the father of the family, and whose permission was required before anyone could be punished. Though they were addicted to drinking and gambling, they showed a strong sense of justice and truthfulness, and the followers of the chiefs were remarkable for their courage and devotion to their leaders.

19. **Government of the German Tribes.**— Even among these barbarous and idolatrous peoples might be seen the germs of most of our modern governments. They had kings who were sometimes chosen from particular families, but who, owing to the limitation of their authority by the popular will, were the representatives of the tribes rather than its rulers. The practical and legislative work of government seems to have been carried on mainly by assemblies. The most important business was dealt with by the assembly of all the fighting men of the tribe, while things of lesser moment were discussed by the assembly of the chiefs. Even in the smaller units of local government it was the assembly of the people that held the reins of power.

This description given by Tacitus of the West Germans might be fairly applied to all Germans. For the different tribes of the Saxons, Franks, Goths, Vandals, and the others did not live absolutely separate from one another. Though very often wars broke out between them, the tribes, as a general rule, tended to mingle together and unite, rather than to separate.

20. **Movements of the German Tribes.**— The first tribes to come in contact with the Roman Empire were the Goths. Already in 101 B. C. they had assumed a threatening attitude, but were beaten by the Roman general Marius at the battle of Vercellæ; nor did their restlessness afterwards seem to have caused much alarm in Rome. By 150 A. D. the Goths had migrated to the south, as far as the Black Sea and the lower course of the Danube. There they divided into two branches, known as the East and the West Goths. It was at this time that the German and the Roman seem to have come into close communication. Gothic slaves were kept in many Roman households and were admitted into po-

sitions of civil and military importance. Colonies of Goths were invited to settle in the Imperial provinces of Italy in order to replenish the diminishing population, and some seem to have received grants of land on condition of military service. With each successive victory of the Romans over the Goths, the number of these colonies seems to have increased, and they soon assumed a permanent character of some importance, the chief of the colony deeming himself a Roman, and controlling the financial and judicial business of the colony.

21. **Roman Influence Upon the Germans.**— But if the Gothic element filtered into Italy, it is equally true that Roman elements of civilization penetrated into the interior of the lands occupied by the Goths. Roman travelers, Roman exiles, and Roman merchants spread everywhere the knowledge of Roman customs and usages; and what was still more important, Roman missionaries introduced among the Goths the knowledge of the Christian faith. But not all the Goths became Catholic Christians. Many of them were Arians; that is to say, they believed that the Second Person of the Holy Trinity was made by the Father, and that He was inferior to and dependent upon the Father.

From the Visigoths, Arianism soon spread to other German tribes, such as the Ostrogoths, Burgundians, and Vandals. This was mainly owing to the energy of the Arian emperor, Valens, and even when an orthodox emperor, Theodosius, afterwards commanded them to accept the Nicene Creed, they refused for political reasons.

22. **Invasion of the Visigoths.**— About the year 395, the Visigoths again became very restless. A considerable number of them, under a leader called Alaric, cherished the idea of a national independence. They were discontented

with the arrangement by which the Roman emperor had allowed them to settle on the land south of the Danube, without being permitted to have kings of their own. In 395 Alaric became their king and this was the signal for revolt. They marched to Constantinople, which they failed to take, and then went through Thrace and Macedonia to Greece. When they had reached Corinth, the emperor sent against them Stilicho, the son of a Vandal chief. No battle took place and a compromise was reached whereby the Visigoths were allowed to settle in Illyria. Even Illyria, however, was unsuited to the development of their national independence, and under Alaric they invaded Italy in 401. Again Stilicho was sent against the enemy, and an indecisive battle was fought at Pollentia, in North Italy. In 408, Alaric, in combination with another very able leader, Athaulf, renewed the invasion of Italy, and about two years afterwards, the city of Rome was betrayed by the treachery of some Gothic slaves into the hands of Alaric. Much has been said regarding the violence and cruelty of the Goths on this occasion, but contemporary writers deny that so much fury was shown by the Goths. One writer says that great respect was shown to the churches in Rome, and that the Goths even went in procession to St. Peter's.

23. **The Visigoths leave Italy.**— The occupation of Italy by the Visigoths did not last long. A few years after the death of Alaric, they migrated to Spain, which had been already appropriated by the Vandals and the Suevi. The Visigoths found it convenient to make an active alliance with the Roman emperor, and waged war upon the Vandals and Suevi with such gratifying success that in 415 the emperor allowed the Visigoths a district in the south of France, while in 466 Spain was formed into a Visigothic kingdom under Euric.

24. **The Vandals,** who had been driven out of Spain, crossed into Africa, and wherever they went, spread havoc and desolation. They numbered between fifty and eighty thousand, and under Genseric, their king, persecuted the Church with even greater ferocity than Diocletian. Contemporary historians, however, attest the firmness and constancy of many of the faithful during those trying years. Many faithful Christians must have been consoled during that trying period by the exhortations of St. Augustine, who in his book entitled "The City of God," while dwelling upon the confusion and horror of those troublous times, exhorts his fellow-Christians to lift up their eyes to the Eternal City of God, whither they were hastening, and where alone they could enjoy true peace and tranquility.

25. **Odoacer in Italy.**— We have seen that the Vandals were driven out of Spain by the Visigoths, who had just migrated from Italy. Though the Visigoths so soon abandoned their conquests, the Romans were not long left in peace. The place of the Visigoths was taken by the barbarian mercenaries, belonging to different tribes. The leader of these fierce and rude soldiers was Odoacer, himself a German, though it is not known to what particular tribe he belonged. At that time, the emperor of the West was a mere boy of the name of Romulus Augustulus; he was unable to oppose any resistance to Odoacer, and was compelled to appear before the senate and resign. From the Roman point of view, however, this did not mean the distruction of the Western Empire; if anything it meant the restoration of its unity under the emperor of the East, who was then Zeno, reigning at Constantinople. Odoacer recognized the supremacy of Zeno, and through the Roman senate, begged for the honorary title of "Patricius," and to be invested with the government of Italy in the Emperor's

name. The request was neither granted nor refused. Odoacer assumed the title himself, and under his assumed administration peace and order were partially restored to Italy. But the success of Odoacer was not permanent. He and his barbarian mercenaries in 488 were attacked by the Ostrogoths under Theodoric, the ablest of all the Gothic rulers. Theodoric gave out that he was acting under a commission of the emperor Zeno, invaded Italy, defeated Odoacer at the battle of Verona, and with the help of the orthodox bishops, made himself supreme in northern Italy. In 493, during the celebration of the treaty of peace, Theodoric caused Odoacer to be basely murdered, and was thus enabled to take possession of all Italy, which remained in the hands of the Ostrogoths for nearly ninety years.

26. **Invasion of the Huns.**— The movement of the Visigoths into Italy and their migration into Spain and Southern Gaul, the devastation of Africa by the Vandals, and the long occupation of Italy by the Ostrogoths, were the three conspicuous events in connection with the movements of the Gothic tribes. But during these migrations there took place an invasion of a new and outside character. Between 444 and 450, the Huns under Attila invaded Europe.

The Huns were Mongolians — of the same race as the Tartars and the Chinese, and a French historian of the middle of the nineteenth century succeeded in proving this fact by evidences drawn from Chinese sources. The Huns soon became, what they were afterwards called, "The Scourge of Europe." These small, dark men, with big heads and flattened noses, feeding on raw flesh and absolutely without pity, filled both Roman and German with horror. The savage invaders soon reached Gaul, and at the battle of Chalons-sur-Marne (451) was decided the question whether the Aryan family was to retain its supremacy in Europe, or

whether it should give way before the Mongolian invader. In that great battle, under Aëtius the Roman, and Theodoric, the future king of the East Goths, the different families of the Aryan race met together and fought side by side against the common foe. Attila was beaten, and the wave of Tartar invasion rolled back to the lands of northern Italy. Verona, Mantua, and other cities were already destroyed. Many of the inhabitants of the mainland in their despair fled to the

Pope Leo turning back Attila from Rome.

islands of the delta of the river Po, and this gave origin to the City of Venice, which in future times, owing to its subsequent commercial prosperity, came to be called "Queen of the Adriatic." Attila then went to Milan and Pavia, which he treated with unusual clemency, and was soon on his way to Rome. But the savage warrior who feared no natural foe, feared the heroism of virtue and majesty of supernatural influence. Already in Gaul he had been turned away from the city of Troyes by the awe-inspiring presence of Lupus, the

bishop of that city, and now on his way to Rome he was met by Pope Leo the First, who successfully warned him not to continue his journey to the "Eternal City." According to tradition, the admonitions of the saintly pontiff were intensified by the apparition of the apostles St. Peter and St. Paul, who threatened the barbarian with instant death if he failed to comply. Attila, after signing the treaty, retired beyond the Danube and his death took place in 453. The invasion of the Huns was a mere episode in the history of Europe, and if we except the foundation of Venice, produced no lasting result. It certainly interfered very little with the remarkable process that was going on at that time — the blending together of the Roman and the German elements.

The best way of arriving at a clear idea of this process, and of giving some sort of unity to the very confused history of this period, is to examine the lives of the few typical men, who, each in his own way, represent all the important movements of those times. These are Theodoric the Great, Clovis in Gaul, Justinian in the Eastern Empire, and Pope Gregory the Great.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Position of German tribes — Character of the Germans and their political organization — Migrations of the German tribes — Communication between Roman and German civilization — Arianism among the Goths — Gothic invasion of Italy — The Visigoths leave Italy — The Vandals in Africa — Odoacer in Italy — Ostrogoths invade Italy — Invasion of the Huns — Four prominent types of this period.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

OMAN, *The Dark Ages;* VILLARI, *The Barbarian Invasions of Italy;* HODGKIN, *Theodoric;* BURY, *The Later Roman Empire* (a Glimpse of Hun Life); PRISCUS, *Excerpta de Legationibus;* GEFFREY, *Augusti, Rome, et les Barbares;* OROSIUS, *Historiarum, Lib. II. in Migne;* TACITUS, *Ger-*

mania; OZANAM, *Études Germaniques;* GUMMERE, *Germanic Origins;* DES GUGNES, *Histori des Huns;* CÆSAR, *Gallic War.*

CHAPTER III

GREAT LEADERS OF THE MIDDLE AGES

27. **Character of Theodoric.**— Theodoric after slaying Odoacer became master of Italy; so important was his reign that its history is practically the history of the East Goths.

In his own person he typified the blend of the German and of the Roman. He was a lover of German independence, and at the same time, a profound admirer of Roman civilization. It was the constant aim of his policy to bring together German vigor and Roman culture, to harmonize in one character the best characteristics of both races. The breadth of his political views, the far-sightedness of his policy in the toleration of those whose opinions differed from his own, made him the most accomplished statesman of the times.

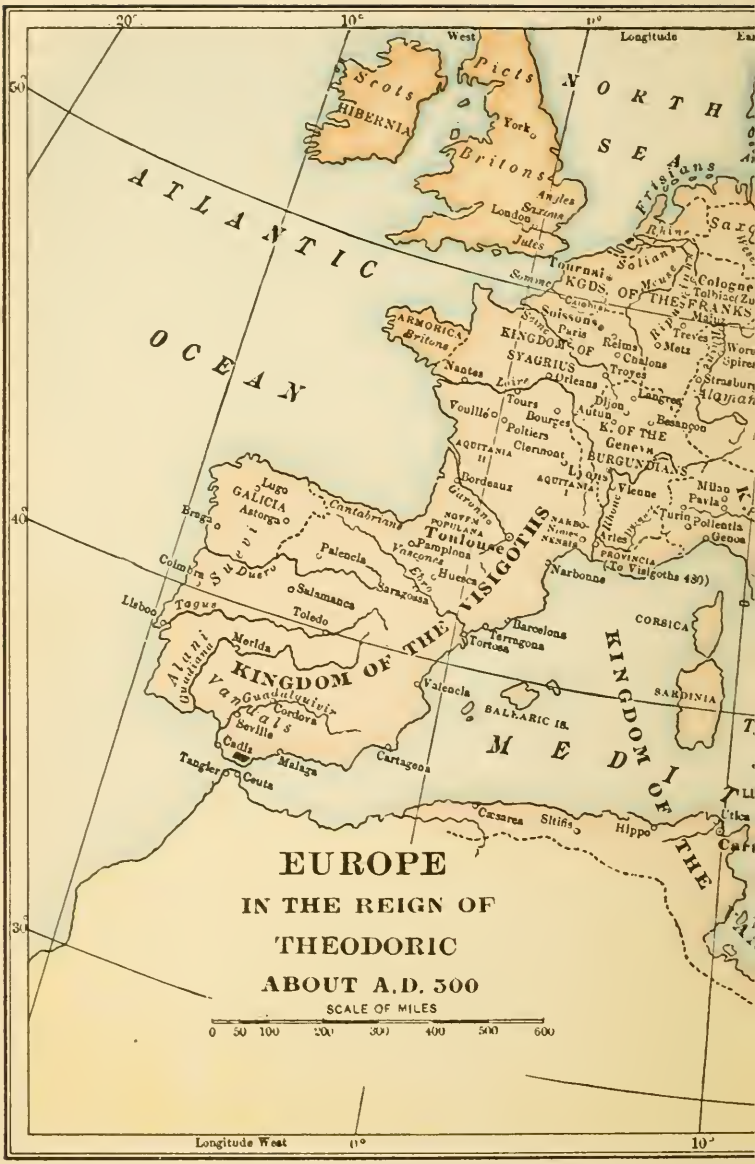
28. **Administration of Theodoric.** — Theodoric fixed his imperial palace at Ravenna, and from there ruled his Gothic and Roman subjects. In the edict which he issued he settled the legal affairs of his Roman subjects, by applying the principles of Roman law. While, however, he was willing to uphold the best elements of Roman civilization, he was careful to reserve the power of the sword for his own race, who thus lived as a military aristocracy in the midst of a conquered people.

The administration of Theodoric gave to Italy a season of peace and prosperity. The clouds of foreign invasion and internal trouble that had so long darkened the land were dissolved, and Italy became once more a land of sunshine. Industry and commerce again flourished. The battered walls of Rome were repaired, the Via Appia, or, Appian Way, was

restored, and the marshes of the Campagna were drained. Every place bore witness to his activity. The restoration of old buildings and the construction of new ones, the re-opening of mines and the establishment of factories, and above all, the care with which he fostered the art of agriculture, showed his recognition of the importance of material and economic prosperity.

29. **Cassiodorus and Boëthius.**— Nor was he unmindful of the advancement of learning. Though he himself was unable to read, he became a patron of men of letters. Cassiodorus, his prime minister, was a man of letters and an historian. The most celebrated of the works of Cassiodorus are his history of the Goths in twelve books and his treatises on logic, grammar, music and astronomy. Among his religious works is an exposition of the Psalms. Another great man of letters patronized by Theodoric was Boëthius, who as consul also devoted a great part of his time to the service of the commonwealth. Boëthius had studied eighteen years at Athens, acquainting himself with literature, philosophy, and mathematics. His writings were numerous and varied. Amongst them were commentaries upon Aristotle, and a treatise on music. His fame traveled so far that the king of the Burgundians visited Rome, not only to view the wonders of that city, but to talk with Boëthius.

30. **Theodoric's Foreign Policy.** — But the fame of Theodoric as a patron of letters fades before the originality and vastness of his political genius. He not only conceived the idea of building up a Gothic Roman empire in an independent Italy, but he also tried to bring about a confederation of German states; in fact he seems to have been the first to dream of a united Germany, a dream that was only realized in the time of Bismarck. One great instrument in the carrying out of


ATLANTIC
OCEAN
NORTH
SEA
MEDI
HIBERNIA
Scots
Picts
Britons
York
London
Angles
Saxons
Jutes
Frisians
KGDS. OF THE FRANKS
Tournai
Cologne
Suissons
Paris
Reims
Metz
Treves
Chalons
Troyes
KINGDOM OF SYAGRIUS
ARMORICA
Britons
Nantes
Loire
Orleans
Tours
Bourges
Poitiers
Clermont
Autun
Dijon
Langres
Besançon
K. OF THE BURGUNDIANS
Geneva
Lyons
Vienne
AQUITANIA II
AQUITANIA I
Bordeaux
Toulouse
VISIGOTHS
Lugo
GALICIA
Astorga
Braga
Cantabrians
Palencia
Pamplona
Vasconns
Huesca
Saragossa
Salamanca
Coimbra
Douro
Lisboa
Tagus
Toledo
Merida
Alani (Vandals)
KINGDOM OF THE VANDALS
Guadalquivir
Cordova
Seville
Cadiz
Malaga
Cartagena
Tangier
Ceuta
Narbonne
(To Visigoths 419)
Barcelona
Tarragona
Tortosa
Valencia
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF THE
Milan
Pavia
Turin
Pollentia
Genoa
Arles
Rhone
Cæsarea
Sitifis
Hippo
Utica
EUROPE
IN THE REIGN OF
THEODORIC
ABOUT A.D. 500
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400 500 600
Longitude West
Longitude

20°
30°
40°
50°
from Greenwich
BALTIC SEA
Memel
Vistula
Oder
Slavic Peoples
Lombards
Huns
Uniester
Danube
Heruli
PANNONIA
Attila's Res.(?)
Theiss
Gepidæ
Drave
OSTROGOTHS
Save
Sirmium (Belgrad)
DACIA
MŒSIA
Naissus
Marcianopolis
BLACK SEA
ILLYRIA
Sardica
THRACE
Dyrrachium (Durazzo)
Philippopolis
Adrianople
EMPIRE
Philippi
Thessalonica
Constantinople
Taranto
LEMNOS
Larissa
Ægean
ASIA
Cosenza
CORCYRA
Neopolis
CHIOS
Messina
Reggio
CEPHALENIA
Ionian
Corinth
Athens
SAMOS
Sea
Syracuse
CRETE
PENTAPOLIS
Alexandria
Greater Syrtis
EGYPT
de East from Greenwich
20°
30°

this policy of Theodoric was to establish marriage relations between himself and the different German tribes. His sister, for example, was given in marriage to the king of the Burgundians, while his two daughters were married respectively to the king of the West Goths, and to the future king of the Burgundians. Even the distant Franks in the North were not left out, for he himself married the sister of Chlodowig, their chief. Not content with this, he was a constant mediator between warring German tribes, reminding them of their common origin and of the duty of peace and mutual good will.

31. **Theodoric's Attitude Towards Religion.** — The character and ability, however, of Theodoric were not crowned with any final success. The great obstacle in the way of his policy of unity was his religion. Theodoric was an Arian, while the bulk of his subjects in Italy were orthodox Catholics. At first he tried to conciliate those who differed from his own creed, but the severe measures passed by the emperor Justin (523) in the East against the Arians embittered his mind, and he retaliated by persecuting the orthodox Christians in Italy.

On ascertaining that the emperor together with some members of the Roman senate was engaged in a conspiracy against him, he began to suspect even those who had been his most trusty confidents. Among these was Boëthius, who was suspected of being one of the chief conspirators. Boëthius was thrown into prison, and it was during his captivity that he wrote the celebrated "Consolation of Philosophy," a work that was afterwards translated into Anglo-Saxon by King Alfred the Great. After two years' captivity, Boëthius was put to death, and in the following year, Symmachus, his father-in-law, shared the same fate. Theodoric himself died in 526. Not only were his dreams of a united Germany dashed to the ground, but even the Ostrogothic empire in

Italy was swept away so completely that even the very name of Ostrogoth in Italy went into oblivion.

32. **Character of the Franks.** — We now turn to another barbarian type, differing in intensity from that presented to us by Theodoric. The East Goths, owing to their close proximity to Rome, had quickly picked up the elements of Roman civilization, but the Franks in the North were more removed than other Germans from such humanizing influences. Of all the German tribes, the Franks were the most anti-Roman, and the most tenacious of all the good and bad qualities of unadulterated barbarism. Their original home was in middle Germany, in a district called Franconia, situated between the Main and the Rhine, and from there they moved into Belgic Gaul in the northeast part of France. Though Belgic Gaul was in the possession of Rome, it was not so fully Romanized as the lower and more southern parts; and thus the Franks, unlike the Goths, had not lost any of their barbaric beliefs and customs. They still clung to their pagan deities and still kept up their old habits of martial savagery. Occasionally, however, circumstances brought the Frank into touch with the other nations. On the battlefield of Chalons, when the scattered members of the great Aryan family united against the wave of Hunnish invasion, we hear of a Frankish king called Merovic, who fought under Aëtius, and this Merovic became the mystic source of the Merovingian house.

33. **Conquests of Clovis.** — It was in the reign of Clovis (481) that the Franks began to form a united nation, ambitious of territorial conquest, but their method of acquiring Roman territory differed considerably from the method adopted by the other German tribes. They did not give up their old homes like the Visigoths and Ostrogoths, and their

movements ought rather to be called expansion than migration.

In the year 486 Clovis defeated Syagrius, the Roman delegate of the Eastern emperor. The capital of the jurisdiction of Syagrius was at Soissons, about 100 miles north of Paris. The defeat of Syagrius enabled Clovis to extend his power as far south as the river Loire, and his marriage with Chlotilda, a Catholic princess of Burgundy, secured him the good will of the Burgundians. Clovis in 496 turned his arms against the tribe of the Alemanni, a German people living in the neighborhood of the Black Forest. At some place in Alsace (the precise locality is unknown) a decisive victory (496) gave the province of the Alemanni into the hands of Clovis. Its main importance consists in its being the indirect cause of the conversion of Clovis to the Catholic faith. When the issue of the battle was still uncertain, Clovis made a vow to become a Christian, if God would give him the victory. Clovis did not break his promise, and the consequences of his conversion were most momentous.

34. **Effects of the Conversion of the Franks.**— The Franks were the only German tribes that, on leaving paganism, adopted the orthodox form of Christianity. It was no wonder that Pope Anastasius II rejoiced at the news and urged Clovis to be a loyal son of Holy Church. Soon between the Franks and the Pope an alliance was made of such an intimate character that it eventually lead to the foundation of the Holy Roman Empire.

Clovis was instructed in the Christian faith by St. Remigius, bishop of Rheims, by whom he was also baptized on Christmas day, 496. He was then anointed and crowned king, the ceremonial for the occasion being borrowed partly from the liturgy supplied by the Book of Kings and partly from Byzantine sources. The first political fruits of this conversion were

fresh conquests. Clovis turned his eye to the lands south of the Loire and determined to wage war on the Arian Visigoths whom he regarded as heretics and enemies of the Church. Between 507 and 511 he drove the Visigoths to the other side of the Pyrenees; all the land that remained to them in Gaul being a small strip in the South.

35. **General Aspects of Clovis' Work.**— The conquests of Clovis were more permanent than those of Theodoric, for there was no religious obstacle to prevent the blending of German and Roman elements. Though he does not seem to have had any definite policy, and though his achievements seem to have been suggested more by the circumstances of the moment than anything else, yet his conquests and his conversion laid the foundation of the great Frankish Empire. Towards the close of the sixth century, the Franks had extended their power over what now corresponds to the France and Belgium of our times, together with part of Western Germany as far as Aix-la-Chapelle.

In 511 Clovis died at Paris, and regarding his possessions as purely personal, distributed them among his four sons — an example which was followed by later Merovingian kings and which lead to the ultimate division of the Frankish realm into Neustria, the West Kingdom, with its capital at Paris, and Austrasia, the East Kingdom, with its capital at Aachen, or Aix-la-Chapelle.

36. **Justinian.**— The Emperor Justinian affords a type of an altogether different character. Around him are grouped the most remarkable events of the Eastern Empire and the influences of that empire on Western Europe.

The immediate predecessor of Justinian was his uncle, the emperor Justin, a peasant of Illyria, an able soldier and a successful general. He was void, however, of the rudiments of

learning and was glad to avail himself of the assistance of the youthful Justinian for whom he had procured a wide and liberal education at the University of Athens.

Justinian succeeded to the imperial throne in 527, A. D., and by the wideness of his interests, and his skill in choosing his instruments accomplished many things and with conspicuous success.

37. **The "Greens" and "Blues."**— Perhaps the most difficult of his tasks was the restoration of internal peace and tranquillity. The obstacle to this had all along been the contest between the two rival factions labeled respectively the Greens and the Blues. The Blues were loyal to the emperor and orthodox, the Greens were devoted to a rival claimant to the throne and were heretics. From very early times there had been in Constantinople different parties who were named after different colors worn originally by rival contestants in the circus; soon these parties became rallying centers for all the opposing elements in the empire; and the colors became symbols of opposing strife, not only in the state, but also in religious affairs.

Justinian's attempt to quell the disorder occasioned by these factions only had the effect of causing them to combine against himself. So desperate was his condition that he was on the point of fleeing from Constantinople, and was only deterred by the insistence of his wife Theodora, who persuaded him to remain and fight for his throne. He followed her advice. The rioters were completely subdued and the city was soon entirely at the mercy of the emperor.

38. **Conquests of Belisarius and Narses.**— Justinian then tried to recover from the Germans the provinces that had been snatched from the empire. In 533 he sent a powerful army under Belisarius into Africa in order to crush the king-

dom that had there been set up by the Vandals. The task was rendered easier by the fact that the orthodox Christians of the African province were badly disposed toward their Vandal rulers and welcomed Belisarius as a deliverer from the fetters of heretical bondage. On the feast of St. Cyprian, the great African Saint, Belisarius entered the walls of Carthage in triumphal procession, after which Gelimer, then king of the Vandals, was beaten and the old province of Africa was restored to the empire.

Belisarius then crossed over into Italy and began to subdue the East Goths. Naples and Sicily fell into his hands, and even Rome surrendered. But the Ostrogoths rallied against the invader. Belisarius, owing to insufficient support from the emperor had to be recalled and his place was taken by another able general, called Narses, who in 552, at the battle of Taginæ, completely crushed the East Goths. The whole of Italy for a time thus fell under the emperor's control, but large portions of this conquest fell away. The only permanent element of it was the district round Ravenna. This was called the Exarchate of Ravenna, from the word "exarch" which was the title of the prefect that ruled it in the name of the emperor at Constantinople.

Even the West Goths in Spain did not escape the attention of Justinian. A Greek army was sent into Spain and conquered an important strip of territory on the southeast coast.

39. **Affairs in the East.**— At home, Justinian tried to promote the industrial strength and prosperity of the country. But unfortunately one of his ministers, John of Cappadocia, largely neutralized his efforts in this direction. Owing to the baleful activity of this individual, the provinces, especially Lydia and Cilicia were laid under heavy taxation; the state post was abolished, and trade was hampered by the imposition of heavy duties on all exports and imports.

In religious matters Justinian exercised a strong active influence. He himself was an orthodox Catholic and did his best to put down heresy and paganism. One conspicuous act of this policy was the closing of the University of Athens. Although some of the greatest Catholic writers had been educated there, yet it was certainly a place of refuge for the old pagan traditions. Most of the professors were pagans, and in spite of isolated instances, its general spirit was antagonistic to the spirit of Christianity.

40. **The Codification of the Roman Law.**— The crowning achievement of the reign of Justinian was the codification of Roman Law; that is to say, he brought into some sort of unity its scattered fragments. These fragments may be classified as follows.

(a) *The Twelve Tables of the Law.* 451 B. C. These form the first instance of written law in Roman history, and were drawn up in answer to a demand of the people who resented the uncertainty and hardship arising from a lack of fixed standard of justice.

(b) *The Resolutions of the People.* In the early days of the Roman republic the plebeiscita or resolutions of the people occupied the most important place in legislation. When however the Senate by degrees assumed the real control of legislation, then the

(c) *Senatus Consulta* or decrees of the senate occupied the more important position in the Roman code of laws.

(d) *Prætors' Edict.* Besides these sources of Roman law there were the decisions of the Prætors which practically correspond to our judge-made law. The laws of the Tables were meant only for Roman citizens. But as Rome enlarged her possessions, she found herself brought more and more into contact with strangers. Disputes sometimes rose between these strangers and Roman citizens. Rome was un-

willing to allow them the privilege of being tried by her own laws so she devised a code of law specially adapted for such cases. Already she had noticed that other nations had certain common elements of jurisprudence; so she grouped these together and applied to them the name Jus Gentium or Law of Nations. This closely corresponds to what philosophers call natural law. A special prætor was appointed every year to administer this law, and the edict which he pronounced on his entry into office also formed part of the Roman code.

(e) *Responsa Prudentum.* These were the opinions of Roman lawyers. In those days a clever lawyer would be visited by crowds of clients who put to him all sorts of questions on cases both real and imaginary. His answers to these questions soon occupied the same position, as the case law does in our times.

41. **The Justinian Code.**— It is evident that in such a number of laws, drawn from so many different sources, there must have been a great number of contradictions and inconsistencies, and it was in order to remove these, as well as to make some classification, that Justinian ordered an eminent lawyer, Tribonius, to collect and arrange all these scattered fragments of the law. The work was successfully accomplished. The laws themselves were arranged into one ordered group called the *Justinian Code.* The opinions and decisions of lawyers and judges were arranged into another group called the *Pandecta*, and the laws which were issued afterwards by Justinian himself were allotted a distinct place by themselves, and called the *Novellæ.* A treatise called Institutes was also prepared on the general principles of Roman Law.

This work of Justinian was of supreme importance and remains even to our own times. It was adopted by all the Latin nations, and even occupies an important place in the codes of the Southern States of America, in fact had the Justinian

code appeared earlier, it might even have been adopted by the Teutonic nations.

42. **Byzantine Architecture.**— Besides the codification of Roman law, there is still another evidence of the wide range of Justinian's mind, and that is the numerous buildings of the Byzantine style of architecture that rose during his reign.

Church of St. Sophia. Built by Justinian in 538 on the site of a church founded by Constantine, it was made into a mosque by the Turks after the capture of Constantinople in 1453. The diameter of the central dome is 107 feet. The four towers are of Moslem origin. From the balconies, the *Muezzin*, or priest calls the people to prayers.

What the Acropolis has done for Athens, and the Temple of Jupiter for Rome, that the church of St. Sophia in Constantinople has done for Justinian and the Eastern Empire. It is a standing symbol of original genius and distinct national character. St. Sophia is cruciform in shape and surmounted in its center by a huge dome. No expense was spared in its materials: marble, granite, and porphyry being brought from Egypt and other places. The size of the dome alone may be

estimated from the fact that it is lighted by forty windows. The example of St. Sophia soon introduced the Byzantine style of architecture into other parts of Europe. Even at the present day this style is still used in Russia and reminds the traveller of the greatness of that Byzantine empire in which Justinian played such an important part.

Gregory the Great

43. **The Lombards in Italy.**— The same period of history that saw the destruction of the East Gothic kingdom in Italy and the death of Justinian, witnessed also the successful invasion of Italy by the Lombards. Unlike the East Goths, who settled down peaceably in the country they occupied, the Lombards wandered restlessly about the peninsula spreading ruin and devastation wherever they went. Those of them who were not pagans were Arians, and all were bitterly hostile to the Catholic Church. Failing to take the whole of Italy, they eventually settled in certain definite localities forming a Lombard kingdom, the capital of which was Pavia, the residence of the Lombard kings. The great plain of Lombardy takes its name from them. They also had extensive possessions in the middle of Italy, the most important of these being the duchies of Benevento and Spoleto.

44. **Rising Influence of the Church.**— The Lombard invasion considerably weakened the Roman element in Italy and caused great misery and confusion. Amidst the anarchy of the times it was the Catholic bishop that still maintained the traditions of law and order, and it was mainly owing to his auspices that the city still remained the center of government and administration.

45. **Rise of Western Monasticism.**— There was also another influence that tended to increase the influence of the

Church, and that was the rise of monasticism. The essence of the religious life consists in taking the three vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, and even from Apostolic times there were men who had embraced such religious life. Up to the fifth century the home of religious life had been in the East. There the monks lived in solitude and extreme asceticism. Though they were subject to the rule of a superior, there was no community life, each monk living retired apart in his own little cell. But the monastic system when introduced into the West, assumed a different character and one that was more suited to the requirements of the people. In the year 480 at Nursia in the Sabine Hills, was born St. Benedict who may be called the founder of Western Monasticism. When he reached the age of fourteen he became disgusted with the vanities and dangers of the world, and sought refuge in the solitude where he might spend his time in reflection and prayer. Others attracted by the fame of his virtues gathered around him and thus was formed a religious community.

It became necessary to organize these aspirants after religious perfection, and St. Benedict drew up a rule containing seventy-three articles. The rule was mainly an abridgment of the counsels of Christian doctrine and was adapted to the needs of a community life. Some sort of hierarchy was established. The first in authority was the abbot; next to him came the prior, and below the prior was the dean, who had jurisdiction over ten monks.

46. **Early Career of Gregory.**— One of the most distinguished members of the order was St. Gregory the Great. Born of a noble and wealthy family, and conspicuous for his virtue and ability he soon rose to high office in the state and even became prætor of Rome. The pope was so impressed with his prudence and skill that he was sent as nuncio to the

court at Constantinople. When Gregory returned after the honorable fulfillment of his mission, he joined the monks at St. Benedict of whom he soon became abbot. His past experience was therefore exceedingly wide and varied. His experience of civil life and his knowledge of ecclesiastical diplomacy and his profound acquaintance with the religious life made him a most worthy successor to Pope Pelagius.

47. **Gregory's Temporal Administration.**— Gregory as pope was at the same time governor of Rome, and his administration was firm and prudent. He put down disorder, improved the condition of the Roman people, and handed on a tradition of political government. With the revenues derived from his property, Gregory managed not only to provide for the defense and other needs of Rome, but also to make a monthly distribution of money and bread to the poor. The good effects of his administration were quickly seen not only in Rome but throughout the Papal Dominions, which extended into Sicily, Dalmatia, Gaul, and Sardinia. These possessions were cultivated by tenants who were bound to the soil, and had to pay taxes in money or in kind. Each separate estate was governed by an overseer, and over these officials Gregory exercised an untiring vigilance.

48. **Gregory's Spiritual Activity.**— But it is the spiritual activity of Gregory that chiefly contributed to the splendor of his reign. With high-minded energy he devoted himself to the interests of the Church. While he was yet abbot he had noticed certain Anglo-Saxons standing in the forum at Rome, and inquiring into their origin wished to go himself to Britain in order to convert their countrymen, and was only prevented by the insistence of the pope himself. But when Gregory ascended the papal chair he sent St. Augustine to England, and thus ultimately brought about the conversion

of that country to the faith. St. Augustine landed (597) on the shores of Kent, converted Ethelbert, the king of Kent, together with a great number of the king's followers, while Paulinus, one of St. Augustine's companions, introduced Christianity into the North of England and prepared the way for the missionary labors of the Irish saints. The light of faith kindled by St. Gregory soon spread from England to Germany. English missionaries, of whom St. Boniface was most conspicuous, labored with untiring energy among the heathen Franks and Saxons.

Pope Gregory also converted the Lombards in Italy. This he did mainly through the instrumentality of Queen Theodebunda whose royal influence was not exerted in vain.

Even the Visigoths and the Suevi in Spain were brought into the true fold by the unlimited zeal of Gregory.

49. **His Organization of the Church.**— But the spiritual activity of Pope Gregory is perhaps still more interesting in its general influence on the Church. He was careful to promote the strictness of religious life by providing that none should take the vows before the age of eighteen, and that lay administrators should take charge of the property of religious. He strove to tighten the reins of ecclesiastical discipline over the general body of clergy and was careful to enforce on them the rule of celibacy. Also for the guidance of the clergy in their sacred duties he wrote a work called "Cura Pastoralis" which was afterward translated into English by King Alfred.

It was Pope Gregory that chiefly organized the splendid ceremonial of Catholic ritual in the West, and that collected and arranged the so-called Gregorian music and established it by authority. Nor was Gregory unmindful of the uses and attractions of literature. While there were some in the papal Curia who knew Greek, Gregory himself, in spite of

his mission to Constantinople, seems to have been ignorant of that language; yet both he himself and his attendants were well versed in the most polished forms of Latin literature, and his care for the education of the young is shown in his erection of orphan asylums and schools for the poor.

50. **Character of Gregory.**— The type presented to us by St. Gregory is perhaps more interesting than the other three that we have been considering, because it presents so many varied aspects, and, more than all, because the purity of his motives was beyond suspicion. He realized in his life what he himself describes in one of his epistles, "my honor is the honor of the whole Church, my honor is to behold the bishops filled with single-minded and earnest energy. Then only do I feel that I enjoy true honor, when the honor due to all is denied to none." The glory of God and the exaltation of His Church was the chief end of all his actions.

It was such characters as that of Gregory that, thriving in the soil of monasticism, saved Europe from utter barbarism during the perils that threatened her from internal anarchy and from the invasion of the Saracens. It was this spirit of religious fervor that slowly broke down the walls that divided society and that stirred the Christians of Europe to take up arms against the enemy that in a short time was to threaten the existence of civilized society.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Character of Theodoric — His policy and administration — Cassiodorus and Boëthius — Theodoric's foreign policy — Theodoric's attitude towards the Church — Character of the Franks — Conquests by Franks under Clovis — Franks embrace orthodox form of Christianity — Clovis' conquests of the Visigoths — Character of Justinian — Difficulties that he had to fight — Justinian's conquests in Africa and in Italy — Justinian's home and commercial policy — His attitude towards religion — Justinian's code, what it contained and its importance — Byzan-

tine architecture under Justinian — The Lombard invasions — Confusion in Italy — Chief preserver of order is the Bishop — The Benedictine monks — Character of Pope Gregory the Great — Pope Gregory's administration of Rome and of the papal states — Conversions of the English, the Germans, the Visigoths and the Lombards — Gregory's care for the spiritual improvement of the Church — His patronage of the arts and letters.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

VILLARI, *Invasions of Italy;* MUNRO AND SELLERY, *Medieval Civilization;* GIBBON, *Decline and Fall;* OMAN, *Byzantine Empire;* HARRISON, *The Byzantine Empire in the Early Middle Ages;* PROCOPIUS, *De Edificiis Domini Justiniani;* EMERTON, *Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages;* HENDERSON, *Select Historical Documents;* HATCH, *Early Organization of the Christian Church;* HODGKIN, *Theodoric; Translations of Letters of Cassidorus;* SERGEANT, *The Franks;* ADAMS, *Growth of the French Nation;* HADLEY, *Introduction to Roman Law.*

CHAPTER IV

MOHAMMED AND THE ARABIAN CONQUESTS

51. **Relations of East and West.**— About the time that monasticism was beginning to assert its influence in Europe, there rose a new force that was destined to have a great share in shaping the history of the West. Already there had been some communication between the civilization of the East and that of the West. The wars between the Persians and the Greeks, the foundation of the Greek Oriental empire by Alexander the Great, and the activity of the Roman emperors are sufficient proofs that the two civilizations were not wholly separated. And now there rose in the East a new religion, which by sheer brute force seemed likely at one time to overwhelm the whole of Europe.

52. **The Arabian Peninsula.**— Arabia was the home of the new movement. This district is a peninsula, about 845,000 square miles in extent, and situated between Persia, Egypt, and Syria. It consists for the most part of a large plateau that in certain places descends abruptly to the sea. It contains fertile meadows, palm trees, and spices, and one part of it is the home of the swiftest breed of horses and camels. The inhabitants are Semitic, that is to say, they belong to the same race as the Jews, though their language differs from the Jewish language. At the time when Mohammedanism appeared they had no organized states, but lived as scattered tribes between whom the main, perhaps the only source of communication was the caravans, or companies of merchants, that traveled together for greater security. Their religion was a curious medley of beliefs, brought together from dif-

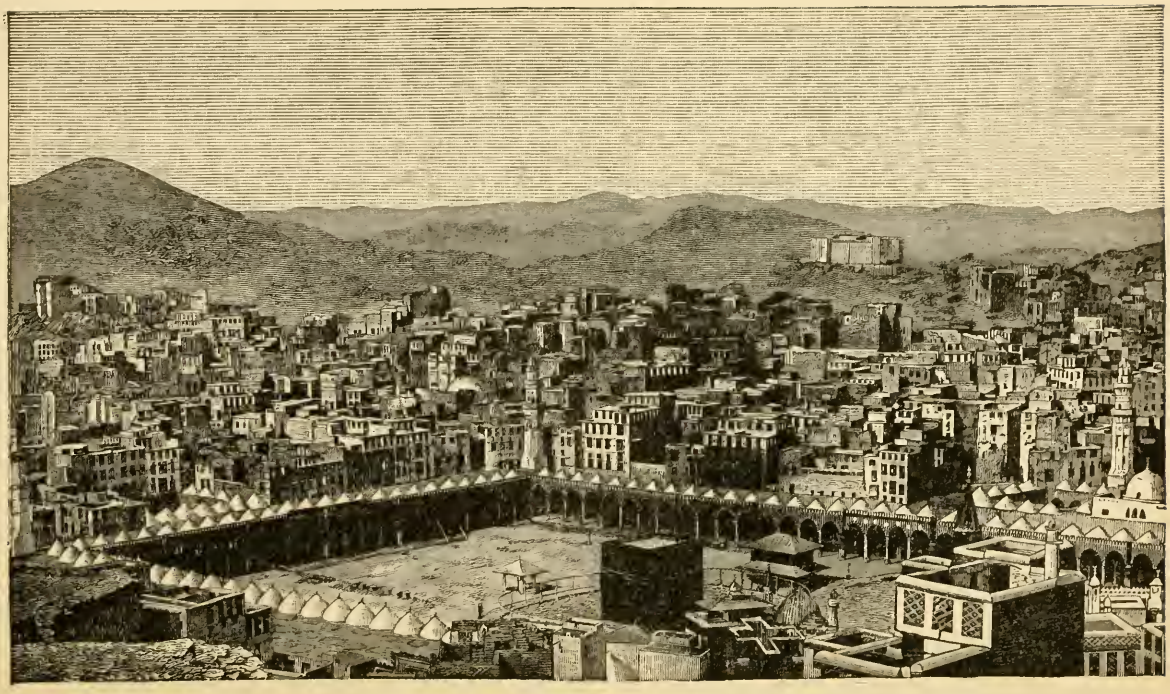
ferent sources. Star-worship, Greek mythology, and fragments of Christian tradition, all found place in their worship.

53. **Early Life of Mohammed.**— It was in this country in the year 570 A.D. that Mohammed was born. His parents died when he was still very young, and his early youth was passed under the care of his uncle, who treated him kindly, but who seems to have done little to procure for him the rudiments of a liberal education. In fact, he could neither read nor write. His chief occupation was that of a shepherd boy.

At fifteen years of age he entered the service of a rich widow called Kadijah. This proved to be the turning point of his career. He acquired money and influence, and what was perhaps still more important, leisure to become a day-dreamer.

54. **A New Religion.**— He began to have visions, and even dreamed that the Archangel Gabriel appeared to him and made certain revelations. Soon, these day-dreams and supposed revelations coalesced into a kind of systematic creed whose monotheistic nature was opposed to the religious customs of the town of Mecca in which he lived and which certainly tended to weaken the influence of the priests of the idolatrous worship. The result was that the people of Mecca rose against him, and he was compelled, in 622, to fly to the town of Medina. This flight afterwards became famous in history and is called the Hegira. Mohammed, however, did not remain long in exile. He returned to Mecca with an armed force and made himself master not only of the city, but also of the whole of Arabia.

55. **Doctrines of the Koran.**— Mohammed now began to write down the revelations that he claimed to have received. These formed a book called the Koran, which not only con-



The Caäba at Mecca, the chief temple of Mohammedan worship. It is fabled to have been built by Abraham and Ishmael, and in its wall is set the "sacred black stone" believed to have been given to Abraham by the Angel Gabriel. The building is 50 feet high and 40 feet by 33 feet at the base. It is kept perpetually covered with the "sacred carpet" of heavy silk which is annually renewed.

tains the religious and moral code of the Mohammedans but also regulates all their civil, legal, and military affairs.

The chief doctrines of Mohammed were simple, and were by no means original. He upheld the doctrine of one God, but without distinction of Three Persons, and taught that Abraham, Moses, and Christ were alike messengers of divine revelation of which he himself was the fullest exponent. Redemption, justification, and grace found no place in the creed of Mohammed, but the doctrine of future reward and punishment was taught in a material and sensual fashion.

One very important characteristic doctrine of the Mohammedans was fatalism. They believed that a certain given result was bound to take place not by providential action of efficient causes, but by an express pre-determination of destiny. Such a doctrine necessarily had great influence upon their political and military character. It gave to them a certain stoicism and fortitude in the midst of the most trying events and gave to them in war a violent recklessness which few could withstand.

56. **Externals of Mohammedanism.**— The practices of the Mohammedans have, in common with those of other false religions, this characteristic, that they regard mainly the externals of religion and pay very little heed to the conditions of true interior sanctification. Prayer five times a day, almsgiving both of money and goods, the obligatory yearly fast during the month of Ramadan and optional fasts during the year, and at least one pilgrimage to Mecca during the course of one's life-time — these were the chief of their pious practices. Their private life was regulated by precepts, some of which were rather austere. Intoxicating liquors are forbidden, and some extended the prohibition even to the use of coffee, on account of its disturbing influence on the imagination. Certain games of chance were also forbidden. Broth-

erly charity was inculcated, widows and orphans were to be protected, and slaves to be treated with consideration.

The most objectionable practice in the Mohammedan religion was polygamy. In this Mohammed himself set an evil example by marrying no fewer than seventeen wives, but he strove to restrain the practice among his followers by limiting the number to four.

57. **Spread of the New Religion.**— The creed of Mohammed soon became the dominant religion in Arabia, and Mohammed himself became at once both pope and king of the now united nation of Arabia, which had become a theocratic state, that is, a state which is also a church. But the enthusiasm inspired by the personality of Mohammed did not confine itself to Arabia. Conquest and expansion became the keynote of his policy, and the Mohammedan invasion soon reached the borders of the Greek and Persian empires.

Mohammed, however, did not live to see the full achievement of these successes. He died in 632, and Abu Beker was elected as his successor. Abu Beker was less of a visionary than Mohammed, but endowed with greater practical energy. In a very short time the revolts that had arisen in Arabia on the death of Mohammed were crushed, Syria was overrun and when Abu Beker died in the full tide of conquest, his place was quickly taken by Omar who completed the conquests of Beker and planned others even still more extensive.

58. **Foreign Conquests.**— Syria was now completely subjugated; indeed, the lax and indolent character of the Syrians made them an easy prey for any invaders, while its riches afforded a temptation hard to resist. Syria at that time was a large and populous country, with many rich cities. The capital was Antioch, called on account of its affluence and splendor, "The Crown of the East." Not only was it a celebrated

emporium, but it was also one of the earliest centers of Christianity, and was also a patriarchate. From Syria the tide of invasion swept over the Holy Land. Jerusalem was taken and on the platform of one of its temples was erected a mosque, called after Omar, "The Mosque of Omar." This is an eight-sided building, with beautiful porches and brilliant mosaics, and under the dome of the building is the sacred rock on which it was believed that Abraham was about to sacrifice Isaac.

Omar then turned his arms against the Persians, whom he defeated with almost as much ease as the Syrians. The chief religion of the Persians was Zoroastrianism, one of whose chief practices was till quite recently supposed to be fire-worship. Many of the Persians fled to India, and their descendants are now called Parsees.

The wars of conquest did not stop even here. In 634 Omar was hesitating in his mind whether he should attack Egypt. Amron, his able general, was already on the frontier. Omar sent him a letter bidding him to return. But Amron, guessing its contents, refrained from opening the letter till he had crossed the frontier. Egypt soon fell, and with it was also taken Alexandria, the center of intellectual and commercial activity, the home of the Jewish philosophy, the city of Philo, of Origen and Clement. Christianity was almost entirely stamped out, the Copts alone retaining some of the traditions of the ancient faith.

It soon became evident that Europe itself would soon become the next object of attack, and Spain was the first country to bear the brunt of the invasion. Spain at that time was in a feeble condition. The Visigoths had become corrupt and feeble, the kings were destitute of ability and all was in a state of division and anarchy, the bishop alone still remaining the upholder of law and order. A certain Count Julian, through motives of revenge invited the Arabs to cross over

into the country. The invitation was accepted. Tarik, the Arab chief, lead his troops over to Gibraltar; at the battle of Zeres, King Roderick was slain, and in 701 Spain as far as the Pyrenees, fell into the hands of the Arabs.

In the early part of the eighth century Mohammedanism had reached its furthest limits of conquest. In addition to the territories already mentioned, it had obtained possession of the islands of the Mediterranean, including Cyprus, while swarms of Arabian pirates infested the whole of the Mediterranean, and even Constantinople itself was in danger.

59. **Decline of Mohammedanism.**— But fortunately for Western civilization Arabian Mohammedanism began to decline. All great movements are generally followed by a reaction, and this is especially the case where the success of such movements depend a great deal upon emotional enthusiasm. This was the case with Mohammedanism. The personal influence of Mohammed had produced much the same kind of emotional fervor as we see in some of our new modern religions. But when Mohammed and the able leaders who succeeded him had passed away a reaction set in, and the "faithful" were not so willing to extend the "cause" or to expose their heads on the field of battle for the certainty of entering more quickly into the possession of their heavenly reward.

Even this, however, hardly suffices to account for the rapid decline of Arabian Mohammedanism. There were also political causes at work. We have seen that the wise and statesmanlike Abu Beker who succeeded Mohammed was himself succeeded by Omar. Omar was followed by Othman, an old man and capable of very little energy. When Othman died in 655, Ali succeeded. Though Ali had been the earliest and most enthusiastic disciple of Mohammed, he was prevented from succeeding earlier, owing to the enmity of Mo-

hammed's favorite wife. Even now the claims of Ali were disputed, and Islam became divided into two camps, one of which upheld while the other rejected the claims of Ali. Soon these two great factions were at rivalry with one another. In the West there arose a line of Caliphs called the Ommiades, and in the East there was the line of Abbassides, the centre of whose power was at Bagdad in Persia. And shortly after this there arose also (929) another line of Caliphs in Cordova in Spain, and again another in Cairo, called the Fatimites, claiming descent from Fatima, the daughter of Mohammed.

60. **The Dynasty of the Abassides.**— Perhaps the most illustrious of these great rival dynasties was that of the Abbassides in Bagdad. Haroun-al-Raschid is perhaps the most brilliant representative of his line. His name has been made famous in the Arabian Nights Tales. Though some writers have exaggerated the moral goodness of his character, yet he was an able and a very learned man, who tried to administer justice in some sort of ready fashion. He was also a skilful organizer, and succeeded in establishing an elaborate machinery of government in which boards, or committees of men, played a very important part. There were, for example, boards of trade, finance, and correspondence. Later on, under the successors of Haroun, there seems to have been introduced a strong feudal element. Provinces were granted to soldiers on condition of their collecting the revenue; out of this they had to provide for their own personal expenses, and after paying the troops, had to remit a certain sum of money to the court at Bagdad. Then the practice crept in of allotting towns or districts to the members of the ruling family, with all the jurisdiction of feudal lords.

Under the Abassides dynasty, Bagdad became famous for its wealth and magnificence. It grew into a city of marble

palaces, full of costly furniture and gold and silver ornaments, while cathedral mosques of huge structure and quaint styles, and marble fountains of ever-flowing water added splendor and variety to the appearance of the city. Culture and refinement were also present. There were public libraries, and booksellers' shops, and such social pastimes as music and chess gave dignity even to lighter hours.

61. **Rise of the Turks.**— But even this, the most learned, the most civilized portion of the Mohammedan world was now threatened by a new and terrible enemy. This was the Turks, who were inhabitants of Turkestan, in Central Asia, and who, on account of their race and barbaric characteristics, were very different from the Arabian Mohammedans whom they were destined to conquer. At first the caliphs found it convenient to hire troops of these soldiers to ward off foreign invasions. But soon these mercenaries acquired complete control. They managed to dwarf completely the central power; they made and unmade caliphs as they pleased, on one occasion setting up four caliphs and deposing them for sheer sport. It was not long indeed, before these Turkish tribes became complete masters of the Mohammedan world.

62. **Invasion of Europe Checked.**— But some years before the Arabian world began to suffer from the aggressions of the Turks, it also suffered two very severe checks from the Christians. In 720 the Arabs invaded Constantinople but were expelled with great loss, partly owing to the strong walls that had been erected by Justinian, and partly owing to the strength and energy of the Isaurian dynasty, then reigning at Constantinople. Again in 732, near Tours, in the south of France the Arabian invaders were crushed by Charles Martel, the leader of the Frankish hosts. These two battles had the effect of preventing the Arabs from pouring over Europe.

Their power, however, was not altogether destroyed. They became a formidable naval power in the Mediterranean. They attacked even Rome, and it was on account of their presence that the Leonine walls were built by Pope Leo IV, about 850. These walls enclosed that part of the city which is west of the Tiber, containing the Vatican, Castle of St. Angelo,

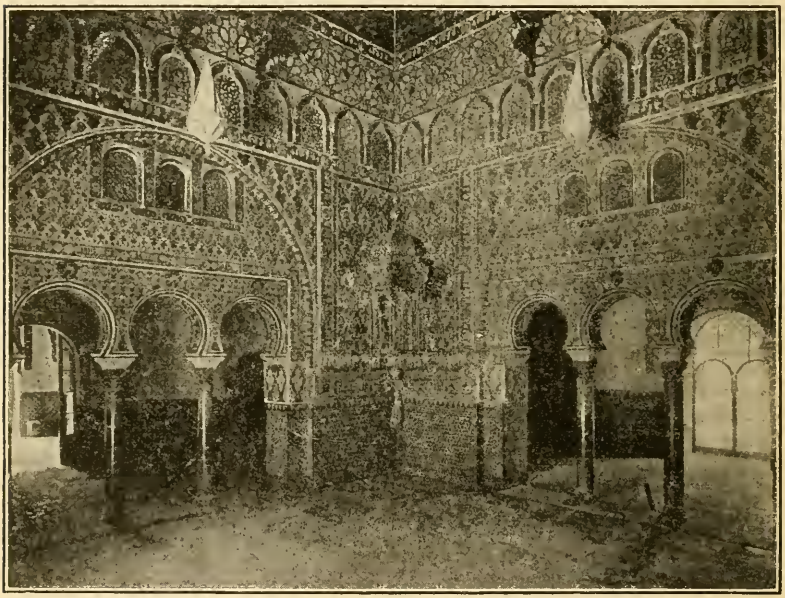
Looking across the Tiber toward the west. The round structure is the castle of St. Angelo, while in the background are seen St. Peter's and the Vatican.

and a district called the Borgo — the whole of this enclosed space being sometimes called the Leonine city.

But by the ninth century Arabian Mohammedanism began rapidly to decline. The decay of its enthusiasm, the aggressions of the Turks, the checks that it had received at the hands of the Christians, and its own internal divisions, soon accomplished its complete overthrow.

63. **Mohammedan Culture.**— In estimating the effects of Arabian Mohammedanism we must not forget that though

it was a lower type of civilization than the European, yet it had important results on European culture and mental progress. It spread the study of philosophy, law, rhetoric, mathematics, and philology, and it was partly through them that the study of Aristotle became so wide-spread throughout the Church. To the Arabs we are indebted for our knowledge of Algebra, and for the use of the Arabic numerals. In



A part of the Hall of the Ambassadors in the Alcazar at Seville. The arches, columns, and ornamentation are characteristic of the Moorish, or Arabesque, style of architecture.

medicine and in chemistry they made a good beginning, and many substances, such as alcohol and nitric acid, were discovered by them. Their liberality of taste seems to have been almost unlimited, and the immense number of manuscripts in the library of Madrid, written on all sorts of subjects sufficiently testifies to the extent of their knowledge. Indeed, the most celebrated schools of learning in Europe

were Arabian, and were frequented even by Christian scholars, among the most noteworthy of whom was Gerbert, who afterwards became Pope Sylvester II.

64. **The Unity of European Nations** was greatly promoted by the invasion of the Saracens. Nothing is so powerful as foreign invasion to knit society together. On the field of Chalôns all the groups of the great Aryan family fought side by side, and on France especially the effect of this union was soon to become apparent. The invasion of the Saracens gave to its ruler, Charles Martel, the opportunity that the war with the Persians gave to Alexander the Great. It enabled him to submerge intestine strife under the plea and necessity of leading the nation against a common foe.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Contact between civilizations of East and West — Arabia — Early years of Mohammed — His conquest of Arabia — The doctrines and practices of Mohammed — Successor of Mohammed — Mohammedan conquest of Syria, Palestine, Persia, and Egypt — Mohammedan invasions of Europe — Moral causes of the decline of Mohammedanism — Political causes of the same — The rival dynasties of Mohammedan caliphs — Greatness of the dynasty of the Abassides — Grandeur of the city of Bagdad — Turkish invasion and conquest of Arabian Mohammedanism — Disasters suffered in Europe by the Arabian Mohammedans — Contribution of Arabian Mohammedanism to Western civilization, learning, and culture.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

Muir, *Mohammed;* Gilman, *Saracens;* Lane Poole, *Speeches and Table Talk of Mohammed;* Amur Ali, *the Spirit of Islam;* Smith, *The Bible of Islam;* Piggott, *Persia, Ancient and Modern;* Adams, *Civilization During Middle Ages;* Duruy, *Middle Ages.*

CHAPTER V

THE CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY

65. Changes in the Frankish Kingdom.— In the previous chapter we saw how Charles Martel defeated the Arabian invaders near the town of Tours,— an event that brings into prominence a new dynasty that was now arising to greatness among the Franks.

The old Merovingian dynasty, that had derived so much splendor from the achievements of Clovis, was now fast declining. It is true that the possessions acquired by him were extensive, but there prevailed among the Frankish chieftains the disastrous tradition that a father's territorial possessions, even if he be a king, should be divided among all his children. The result was continual quarrels and divisions, and the destruction of national unity. At the same time, the old Frankish chieftains had lost a great deal of that martial energy and barbaric virility that had been such a large element of their success.

66. Dagobert I.— Only one or two names seem to stand out from the long line of mediocrities. Dagobert I reigned from 628 to 639, and for a brief space restored unity to the kingdom. He was a great lover of order and justice, and was a conspicuous patron of the Church. He reduced to writing the customary laws of the kingdom, and built the celebrated abbey of St. Denis which became the historic burial place of after kings of France. His reign also saw the enlargement of the frontiers of France, which now extended from the Weser in the East to the Pyrenees, and from the Western Ocean to the frontiers of Bohemia,

67. **Mayors of the Palace Assume Royal Power.**— But Dagobert died in 638, and his successors soon lost all the substance of kingly power. This passed into the hands of the prime ministers of the king, who were called the Mayors of the Palace. These soon usurped all real authority. The decline of the power of the nominal authority was also complicated by the division between the eastern and the western part of Gaul, called respectively Austrasia and Neustria. The eastern part was farther removed from Roman influences, and was much more barbarous and German in character than the western district. Open warfare soon broke out, and in 689, at the battle of Testry, near Soissons, it was decided that the leadership belonged to Austrasia, whose Mayor of the Palace, Pippin, now began to rule both Austrasia and Neustria.

68. **Pippin**, who thus held the reins of supreme power in nominal subjection to his king, further strengthened the position of his family by foreign conquests, and more than all, by an alliance with the Church. He conquered Swabia and Bavaria, two nations of Southern Germany, and he took care to make Christianity follow in the wake of his victorious arms. The most pious and zealous bishops were invited from distant countries to evangelize the conquered. Among these were Willibroad, "Apostle of the Frisians," who founded the see of Utrecht, and Boniface, "Apostle of Germany," who founded the see of Maintz. Together with these bishops were also a great number of monks, most of them from Ireland, which was already rich in the Christian faith and its virtues.

69. **Charles Martel.**— Pippin was succeeded by Charles Martel, a stronger man than even Pippin had been. It was Charles Martel that defeated the Arabians at the battle of Tours, and he still continued Pippin's policy of co-operating

with the Pope, now Gregory II, by striving to spread Christianity in central and southern Germany.

70. **Pippin II.**— Charles Martel died in 741, and was succeeded by his son Pippin, who made the most of the strong position that had been left him by his father. In 751 he felt that he could now throw off all disguise and assume even the outward appearance of kingly power, an appearance which still remained in the line of Clovis. He accordingly asked the Pope whether it was not better that the man who had the real power should not also have the title. The reply was affirmative. Childeric was formally deposed, his long hair (the symbol of power) was cut off, and he himself quietly put into a monastery, while Pippin was hailed king of Franks.

71. **Close Alliance with the Pope.**— This formal sanction of the Pope gave great influence and prestige to the new dynasty thus founded by Pippin, and now there began to be drawn still more closely those bonds of alliance between France and the Papacy that were destined to have such important results in after history. Pope Stephen was sorely pressed by the Lombards, who, after making many conquests, even marched on Rome. So great was the danger that the Pope, to his own great risk, crossed the Alps and implored in person the protection of Pippin. The request was soon granted; Pippin overcame the Lombards and forced them to restore the rights and possessions of the Church of Rome "donated to St. Peter, to the Church and to the Roman Republic" (754). These possessions comprised the exarchate of Ravenna, and the territory of Bologna and Ferrara, all which ultimately went to form a substantial part of the Papal States.

The intervention of Pippin is important because it showed that now the king of the Franks, not the Eastern emperor, was the real protector of Italy, and it thus emphasized the

growing estrangement between the Eastern and the Western Churches. Considerable friction had already been caused by the very different views that they held regarding the worship of images. The Catholic Church upheld this worship as good and lawful, while the Eastern Christians rejected it as idolatrous. Even at the present day the Greek Church is conspcuous for its denial of the worship of images, only pictures being seen in its sacred buildings.

72. **Charles the Great.**— Pippin died in 768, and Charles, his eldest son, succeeded to Austrasia and Neustria and a part of Germany, while Carloman, the younger son, succeeded to Burgundy and southern Gaul. But Carloman soon died, and Charles then became sole ruler over the undivided Frankish monarchy (771).

The personality of Charles is supremely interesting, not only on account of all that he did, but because he blended in himself such different abilities of a very high order. He was a theorizer and a man of action. He took a keen interest in such academic studies as Latin, Music, and German grammar, and at the same time, could organize all the details of practical government. He could return from a long and savage campaign and issue instructions for the holding of synods and the conduct of the clergy.

73. **Conquests of Charles.**— His foreign policy was firm and vigorous and the key-note of it was expansion — expansion however within reasonable limits. After subduing the turbulent Franks and curbing the insubordination of his vassals he entered on a series of campaigns against the Saxons, who were the fiercest and most untractable of the German tribes. Eventually the Saxons under their leader Wittekind, were completely vanquished and the column of Irmin, a symbol of their national unity and strength, was taken and trans-

EMPIRE OF
CHARLEMAGNE
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200 250 300
Governed by the Franks
Tributary
States of the Church
To Eastern Empire
Claimed by Franks at Charles Accession
NORTH SEA
ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
KINGDOM OF THE ASTURIAS
NEUSTRIA
BRITTANY
AUSTRASIA
ALAMANNIA
BAVARIA
CARINTHIA
PANNONIAN MARCH
CARNIOLA
Croats
Serbs
DALMATIA
ADRIATIC SEA
RETIA
PROVENCE
GASCONY
SEPTIMANIA
BYRENEES
SPANISH MARCH
LOMBARDY
TUSCANY
DUCHY OF SPOLETO
DUCHY OF BENEVENTO
CORSICA
ELBA
Sorbs
Czechs (Bohemians)
Longitude West
Longitude East from Greenwich

ferred to a monastery. Charlemagne, acting against the advice of his clerical council, tried to convert the Saxons to Christianity by force, with the result that the desired process of conversion was retarded rather than hastened; and it was only in spite of great difficulties that churches were erected and bishoprics established. Among these bishoprics were those of Osnabruck, Munster, Bremen, Verdun and Halberstadt, all of which, even up to our own times, have held an important position in lay and ecclesiastical history.

74. **Coronation of Charles as Emperor.**— There were wars also in Italy. In 798 there had been a revolt in Rome against Pope Leo III, on acount of certain criminal charges that had been made against him. The Pope fled to Charlemagne and begged to be reinstated in his authority at Rome. Charlemagne, while emphatically announcing the principle "that it was the right of the Pope to judge princes, and not theirs to judge him," acceded to the request. The Pope returned to Rome, accompanied by Charlemagne's officials. Charlemagne himself followed later, and on Christmas Day, 800, Leo III crowned Charlemagne Emperor of the Romans.

The meaning of this important act is threefold. First, it lead to the establishment of what was called "The Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation." Hitherto, the different Germanic tribes had been at constant warfare with one another. There had been no theoretic basis of union and centralization. This was now supplied, at least during Charlemagne's time, by the recognition of a superior and universal power. Second, it meant the withdrawal of the Romans from their allegiance to the Eastern imperial court. For this a justifiable pretext had been already found in the crimes and cruelty of the Empress Irene, who had dethroned and blinded her son Constantine VI. Third, it meant a still closer union between church and state — a union that was beneficial to

the Church on account of the protection it afforded in turbulent times, and beneficial to the state for the incentive that was given to culture and intellectual progress. Voltaire himself says "If at this time the kingdom of Charles alone possessed some measure of culture, it is probably to be ascribed to the fact that the emperor had made a journey to Rome."

75. **Extent of Charles' Domains.**— Charles was now master of the greater part of Europe. Besides France itself, his empire included more than half of modern Germany, three-fourths of Italy, while on all the exposed frontiers, tributary states were set up which were strongly fortified and which served to protect what had already been won. His court soon became the centre of intercourse with foreign nations. Irene and her successors had at first stormed and raged and had refused to recognize him. But Charlemagne was so conciliatory that by 813 he secured the recognition of his imperial dignity by the Eastern court, was greeted by its ambassadors as "Imperator" and "Basileus." With Offa, king of Mercia (the middle kingdom of England) Charlemagne kept up friendly relations, and later on, adopting a different policy, aided in building up the power of Wessex (the southern kingdom of England) against that of Mercia. Charles even corresponded with the Caliph of Bagdad, giving and receiving in return courtesies and presents.

76. **Charles' Domestic Policy.**— Charles' domestic policy still maintained at least the forms of the old Teutonic democratic institutions. The principle that all should deliberate and discuss matters of great moment, while the chiefs should deal with less important business, was still recognized. Twice in the year, in autumn and in spring, a general parliament was held of all the free men. The popular element of these meetings, however, has often been exaggerated, and in any case,

Charles often issued special laws of his own, called capitularies, which were less formal in appearance, but effected substantially any change or reform that he desired.

77. **Units of Administration.**— In order to extend his personal rule and supervision into every part of the land, he also instituted a class of officials, all dependent upon him. Round his own person, and forming his household, or palatium, were the great nobles and clerics who formed a kind of permanent council of state. Then there was the count (graf) who in the emperor's name administered a great district, called gau, which corresponded to our modern county, the dukes, who fulfilled military functions, and the marchiones, or markgrafs, who were the counts of border districts. While in order to put a check on all these different officials, special commissioners were sent out in pairs, one generally being a clergyman. They constituted not only a court of appeal, before which even high offenders could be arraigned, but they attended to such things as taxation, discipline of the army and even the good conduct of the clergy.

78. **Connection of Church and State.**— In the whole of this system a very prominent part was taken by the Church. This, however, is not surprising when we remember that the clergy then possessed all the culture and refinement of the age. And so, not only in the palatium was there a large body of clergy called chaplains, who, under the archchaplain or chancellor, performed a great deal of the general administration, but even throughout the scattered units of the empire, ecclesiastics shared in all important civil and legal business. Nor was this arrangement purely one-sided, for the state was allowed to help in the administration of the affairs of the Church. The election of bishops, the holding of synods and carrying out of their decrees, the institution of

diocesan visitations — all these were considered to be matters pertaining to the jurisdiction of the Church as well as of the state.

Charlemagne as a soldier and as a statesman well deserves the title of Great. But he is deserving of another kind of interest, on account of the refinement and wide liberality of his tastes.

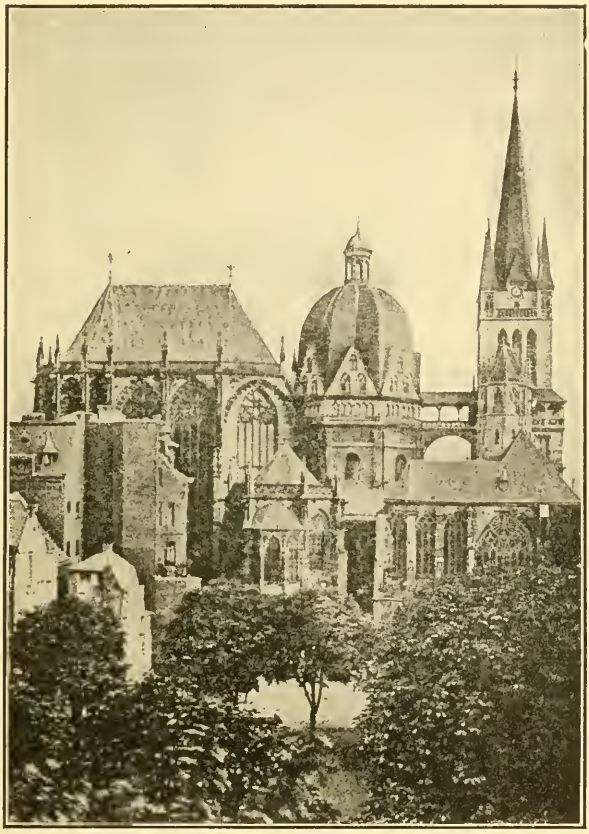
79. **Patronage of Learning.**— He formed his court into a palace-school called "Schola Palatina," and to this school he drew many of the most renowned scholars of the age. Among these were Peter of Pisa, Paul the deacon of the Abbey of Monte Casino, and above all, the great English Alcuin, formerly head master of the school of York. Many scientific treatises and literary writings testify to the ability of the scholars of these schools, and to this period of intellectual activity we owe some of the best Latin Hymns, such as the "Crudelis Herodes," written for the feast of Holy Innocents, "Veni Creator Spiritus," and others. In all these schools Latin was studied with great zeal, and great attention was paid to the classic authors. The insistence which they placed on the necessity of good Latin made all the more perceptible the difference between the written and spoken Latin, so that the latter soon became a distinct dialect of its own, which eventually developed into modern French.

Besides science and literature, Charles also took a keen interest in music. Priests were invited over from Italy to give lessons in singing, and the Organ was for the first time introduced into Gaul.

Architecture also received a fresh impetus during the reign of Charlemagne.

Charles was also interested in building. He built great palaces for himself at Aachen, Maintz and Nymeguen. He also erected many beautiful churches, the most noteworthy

being the church of Aachen, in which he was buried. Most of the architects of these buildings were Italians, and were invited over from Italy.



The Cathedral at Aachen (Aix-La-Chapelle). The round part of the structure was built by Charlemagne who was buried directly beneath the dome. The rest of the cathedral, in the Gothic style of architecture, was added in the fourteenth century.

The death of Charlemagne in 814 ended one of the most remarkable reigns of history. He not only founded a mighty empire, and extended in many ways the domain and influence

of the Church, but he gave a lasting impetus to the culture of learning and art, and the spread of civilization.

80. **Conquest of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons.**— Between the years 449 and 577, the Britons, who were the ancient inhabitants of England, were driven from their ancient home by certain tribes from Germany, chief among whom were the Saxons. These tribes brought over with them all their ancient political institutions and in a few years set up a number of kingdoms, each governed by its own king and Witan. By degrees, however, three out of these several kingdoms acquired the first position — they were, the kingdon of Northumbria in the north, the kingdom of Mercia in the centre, and the kingdom of Wessex in the south. Fierce wars broke out between the three kingdoms, each striving in turn to become the supreme power in England. At first Northumbria took the lead. Its kings Aethelric, Aethelfrith, Edwin, Oswald and Oswi were great soldiers and strong rulers, and not only kept Mercia in check, but also extended the Northumbrian borders both west and north. Northumbria also was the first to accept Christianity after the conversion of Kent, and became famous for its saintly bishops and such learned scholars as Venerable Bede and St. Alcuin of York. But by the year 685 the power of Northumbria had declined, and Mercia, under its two able kings, Penda and Offa, took the lead. The triumph of Mercia, however, was even more shortlived than that of Northumbria. It became weakened by intestine strife, and in 828 Egbert of Kent, hitherto an exile at the court of Charlemagne, saw that the hour had come. Rapidly marching northward, he asserted the supremacy of the southern kingdom of Wessex over both Mercia and Northumbria so that now the king of Wessex became virtually the king of all England. The warring Saxon kingdoms were at last united and the English nation established.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Decay of the Merovingian dynasty — Importance of the reign of Dagobert — Mayors of the palace — Rivalry between Neustria and Austrasia — Conquests made by Pippin I and the conversions that followed — Charles Martel conquers the Saracens — Pippin II and his alliance with the papacy — Coronation of Pippin II as king of the Franks — Personality and character of Charlemagne — Charlemagne's conquests — Charlemagne crowned emperor by Pope Leo III — Meaning of the Holy Roman Empire under Charlemagne — Extent and influence of Charlemagne's empire — Charlemagne's domestic policy — Public meetings of the free-men — His system of local government — Charlemagne's connection with the church — The Schola Palatina— Charlemagne's patronage of learning and arts. Conquest of England by the Saxons — The Heptarchy becomes three great rival kingdoms.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

EINHARD, *Life of Charlemagne;* NOMBERT, *History of Charles the Great;* WEST, *Alcuin and the Rise of the Christian Schools;* BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire;* HODGKIN, *Charles the Great;* BEDE, *Ecclesiastical History of England;* KITCHIN, *History of France;* EMERTON, *Medieval Europe;* ROBINSON, *Readings in European History;* MULLINGER, *Schools of Charles the Great;* GREEN, *A Short History of the English People.*

CHAPTER VI

CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY — CONTINUED

81. Reign of Louis the Pious.— Charlemagne had only one son, Louis, surnamed the Pious, on account of his benevolent disposition. The year before Charlemagne died, Louis was made colleague in the empire and on Charlemagne's death in 814, he at once succeeded to the throne.

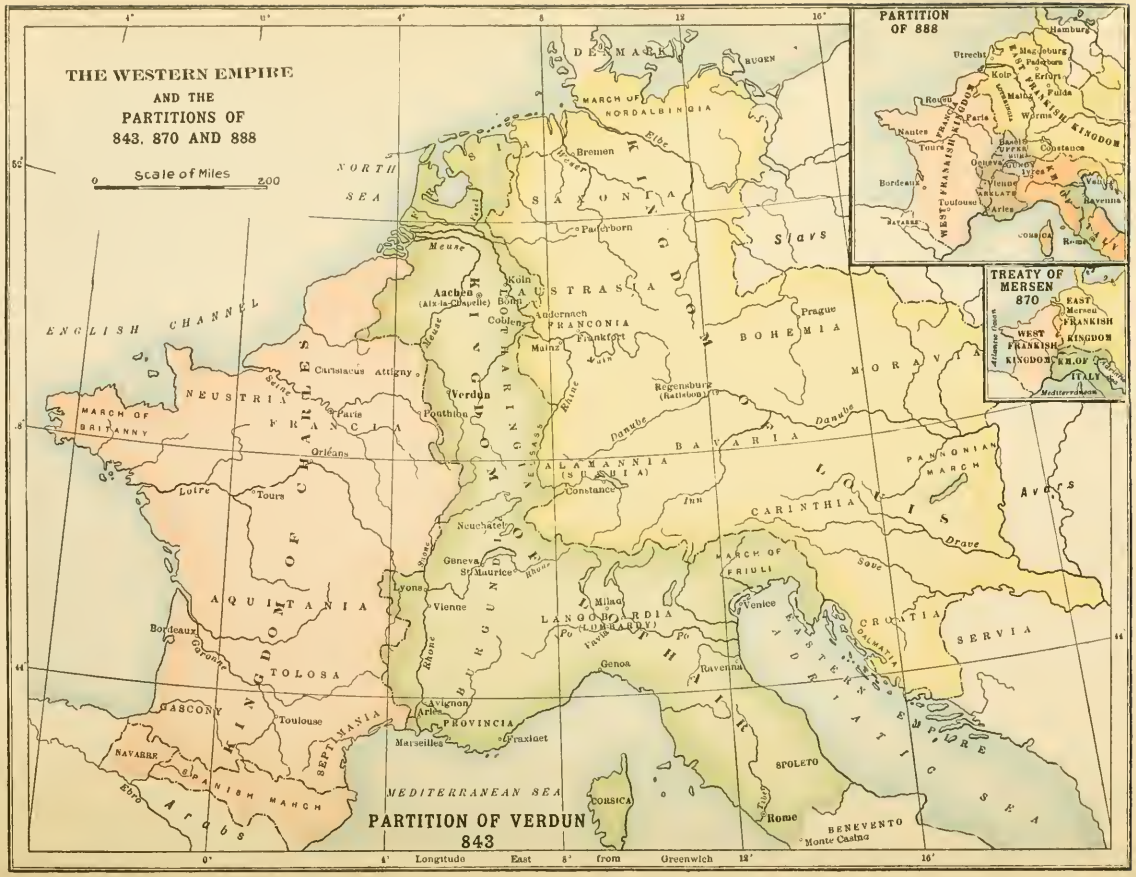
The reign of Louis illustrates one of the many general tendencies that go to the formation of history. A great organization that is the result not of gradual growth of circumstances but of the individual work of some great genius, frequently dissolves when the genius that has created it has passed away. What took place on the death of Charlemagne is an example of this: Louis was utterly destitute of the commanding qualities of his energetic father, and it was not long before the disintegrating forces of different races, languages, and customs began to show themselves. Moreover, the Germans, who constituted the main element of the empire, were for the most part factious and turbulent soldiers, and were opposed to the continuance of any authority. The main interest of the reign of Louis centres in his relations with the Church. Pope Stephen IV, who succeeded Pope Leo III, set out for France and crowned Louis at Rheims. The newly-crowned emperor then did his best to further the interests of the Church, by correcting the many abuses that had crept in, and by encouraging the institutions that now seemed most helpful for this purpose.

82. The Canonical Life.— Already in Charlemagne's reign, Bishop Chrodegang of Metz, seeing the dangers to which

secular priests were subject, tried to establish among his clergy the canonical life. Ecclesiastics who lead this kind of life dwelt under the immediate supervision of the bishop, and led the common life, reciting their office in choir, eating in the same dining-room and sleeping in the same dormitory. Such communities were found not only in Cathedral churches, but also in the larger parishes, and this gave rise to collegiate churches. It was evident that the clergy, who thus lived in communities, were likely to be more devoted to their duties, and were safer from the dangers arising from contact with the world, than if they were living singly.

83. **The Western Benedictines.**— Besides the canonical life there was also the religious life, and this became, even in a higher degree, the great mainstay of the discipline and fervor of the Church. During the middle ages all great movements of reform had some connection with the religious orders. We have seen how in Italy, at the time of Pope Gregory the Great, St. Benedict of Nursia founded the great order of Western Benedictines, and now about two centuries later, another St. Benedict, the St. Benedict of Aniane, introduced a similar reform into France. Louis the Pious had such confidence in him that he entrusted to his supervision all the convents of Western France. The rule adopted by St. Benedict was substantially the same as that of St. Benedict of Nursia, only that it was supplemented here and there in order to meet the altered needs of time and locality. This combination of the old rule and the supplementary regulations became known as the "Concordia Regularium," and soon acquired almost as much fame as the original rule of St. Benedict of Nursia.

84. **Division of the Carlovingian Empire.**— In the meantime, the political condition of the empire was far from satis-


THE WESTERN EMPIRE
AND THE
PARTITIONS OF
843, 870 AND 888
Scale of Miles
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NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
DENMARK
SAXONIA
AUSTRASIA
FRANCONIA
BOHEMIA
BAVARIA
ALAMANNIA (SUEVIA)
CARINTHIA
NEUSTRIA
FRANCIA
AQUITANIA
BURGUNDY
LANGOBARDIA (LOMBARDY)
TUSCIA
SPOLETO
BENEVENTO
CROATIA
SERVIA
GASCONY
TOLOSA
SEPTIMANIA
PROVINCIA
SPANISH MARCH
MARCH OF BRITANNY
MARCH OF FRIULI
PANNONIAN MARCH
Aachen
Verdun
Mainz
Frankfort
Regensburg
Prague
Trier
Metz
Reims
Paris
Orléans
Tours
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Lyons
Vienne
Geneva
Milan
Venice
Ravenna
Genoa
Rome
Corsica
Marseilles
Arles
Avignon
Constance
Coblenz
Worms
Hamburg
Utrecht
Magdeburg
Paderborn
Köln
Erfurt
Fulda
Nantes
Basle
Lyons
Vienne
Valence
Ravenna
Longitude East 5° from Greenwich

factory. The elements that composed it were far too different in character, and even during the reign of Louis the Pious, there were signs of political disintegration. When Louis died in 840, open war at once broke out. Louis had divided the empire among his three sons Lothair, Charles, and Louis. Lothair, being the eldest, soon claimed the whole of his father's possessions, but Charles and Louis asserted that according to the principles of Frankish tradition the empire ought to be divided equally. In the struggle that ensued, Charles relied for support on France, while Louis turned for aid to Bavaria. At the battle of Fontenay near Auxerre, Lothair was defeated, and had to withdraw to Aachen. A little later he suffered another defeat, and seeing it was better to sacrifice the whole in order to make sure of a part, he offered to come to terms and to make some amicable division of the empire. In 843, at Verdun, was signed the famous treaty of partition. By this treaty Lothair as emperor was permitted to have his share in such a way as to secure himself in possession of the two capitals Aachen and Rome. He accordingly acquired a long strip of territory extending from the North Sea to Italy, the upper part of it being bounded on the left by the Rhone and the Saone, and on the right by the Rhine, though these rivers must not be taken as the exact frontiers. All the territory west of this strip was allotted to Charles, while the territory to the east went to Louis.

85. **Results of the Treaty of Verdun.**— The treaty of Verdun seemed the death-blow to the unity of the empire, but from another point of view it brought almost uncalculable benefit to the peoples of Europe. The western and the eastern divisions became respectively France and Germany. It was the treaty of Verdun that allowed each of these two nations to start on its own course of development. France with its romance tongue, its brilliant imagination, and precise sub-

tlety of thought. Germany with its vigorous accents and robust character and thoroughness — both received their start from this memorable treaty of 843.

86. **After History of the Middle Kingdom.**— The division of the middle kingdom also occupied a very important place in after European politics. Not only did it cause continual strife between France and Germany, who were both anxious to absorb it into their own territories, but the upper part soon began to split up into important duchies, each with an eventful history of its own. In the southern part there began to reign kings of Burgundy. First there was the kingdom of Franco-Juran Burgundy, including the southern part of Savoy, and a part of Switzerland, then there was the kingdom of Cis-Juran Burgundy, including the northern part of Savoy and also part of Switzerland. Finally these two kingdoms were united together to form a new kingdom of Burgundy, or Arles, which, with the exception of the Swiss portion, gradually became annexed to France. The northern portion of the middle kingdom went by the name of Lorraine, and soon divided into Upper and Lower Lorraine, or Brabant. In the early stages of existence, Upper Lorraine belonged to Germany, but in the seventeenth century it was annexed by France, which, however, had to cede a portion of it to Germany after the war of 1871.

87. **Weakening of the Empire.**— But however important the treaty of Verdun may have been in determining the after history of Europe, it served to emphasize the weakness of the empire as a whole. The little duchies and small provinces that were as many separate kingdoms began to assert actively their own local independence. Even kings over limited areas found it extremely difficult to assert any central authority. In those times good roads were an absolute neces-

sity for keeping up the necessary communication between the center of government and the outlying parts, and what good roads had been constructed by the Romans had unfortunately been allowed to decay. Then, again, in the middle ages the kings had to contend against the difficulties arising from scarcity of money. Without a well-filled treasury they could scarcely maintain an efficient civil service, or keep up a large standing army in order to repress the insubordination of local magnates.

88. **Foreign Invaders.**— These causes of disintegration were sufficiently powerful in themselves, and just at the critical time there appeared another danger of an external kind. This was the invasions of fierce and irresistible barbarians. From the south came the Saracens, who terrorized southern Italy and France; from the east came the Slavs and Hungarians, who were continually harassing the German territories, and from the north came the Northmen and the Danes. Of all the invaders these were the most terrible. The cause of their migration seems to have been partly that which produced the great migrations in Europe itself. The rudeness of the climate and scantiness of the soil, combined with increasing population, drove them to seek for places where they might enjoy a more easy and tolerable existence. Also a political process was going on that tended in the same direction. Great kingdoms were rising and threatening to take the place of the smaller kingdoms, each governed by its jarl. The people of these smaller kingdoms therefore eagerly sought for new homes where they might enjoy their old local independence.

89. **Settlements of the Northmen.**— Norway lead the way, and soon the little ships of the bold Norwegian pirates scoured the remotest seas. The Shetland islands, situated to

the north of Scotland and Iceland with its volcanoes and glaciers were the first halting places of these restive pilgrims. They next traveled farther to the west, and discovered Greenland, a name supposed to have been given this land in order to attract settlers from Iceland. Others again went to the North American continent, which from its fertility was called Vineland. And wherever they went they seem to have retained their old traditions of petty isolated kingdoms, each enjoying absolute independence of the rest.

It was not long before other and more favored spots attracted swarms of these adventurers. Those went to the extreme north of Scotland, called Sutherland, from the Northman's point of view. Thence they extended their way down the southwest of Scotland, along the Welsh coast, even as far as the fiords of Pembrokeshire. No country seems to have been safe from their ravages. Gliding in their light boats up the Seine and Loire, Garonne and Rhone, they spread terror wherever they went. Even Paris at one time seemed likely to fall into their hands. Of the French settlements perhaps the most famous was that of Normandy, made into a duchy by Rollo, who was its first duke. But even the southern parts of Europe were not considered too remote. Spain was attacked and the fair cities of Italy were laid waste.

Another stream of migration started from Sweden. The leader was Rurik who became the reputed founder of the Russian monarchy.

90. **Results of these Invasions.**— These invasions seemed to put back civilization by at least two hundred years. The bonds of society were loosened, and complete anarchy would have destroyed entirely the work of Charlemagne, were it not for certain forces that seemed to have been providentially brought into existence for the salvation of Europe.

91. **England; Reign of King Alfred.**— The period roughly covered by the ninth century saw the ascendancy of the house of Wessex, and a condition of constant warfare with Northmen and Danes. The most important king over Wessex during this period was Alfred, surnamed the Great. He was celebrated as a statesman, as a writer, and as a general. As administrator, he enforced submission to the legal jurisdiction of the local courts, supervised the conduct of officials both secular and lay, compiled a code of laws, and rebuilt schools and monasteries. As a writer, his chief works were the translation of the Ecclesiastical History of England by Bede, interspersed with reflections of his own, so that history now becomes no longer a mere chronological work, but a continuous literary narrative. He also wrote a translation of the "Consolation of Philosophy" by Boëthius, and of the "Pastoral Care" by Pope Gregory. Alfred was also a soldier, and after a series of great battles succeeded in preventing the Danes from obtaining the complete conquest of England. His most conspicuous means of defense was the organization of the national militia, by which one-half of each shire was always in readiness for military service, and his orginazation of an English fleet with ships of improved model — so that Alfred has been styled by some the "Father of the English Navy." However, in spite of Alfred's genius and activity, he did not succeed in expelling the Danes altogether. By the peace of Wedmore (878) the northern and eastern parts — about one-half of England were left to the Danes, who in their government used their own laws and institutions. This district was called the Danelagh (Dane Law), and to this day certain names both common and proper, remind one of this Danish occupation. The general result of these Danish invasions and settlements was to add fresh vigor and virility to the Saxons of Britain and to intensify rather than to destroy the old English political and legal institutions; for both the

invaders and the invaded were of one blood, and their social order and customs were inherited from the same parent institutions.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Immediate successors of Charlemagne — Character of the reign of Louis the Pious — His relations with the Church — Founding of canonical congregations — Monasticism reformed by St. Benedict of Aniane — Division of the empire between the three sons of Louis the Pious — Treaty of Verdun and its importance — Future history and divisions of the middle kingdom — Empire attacked by savage invaders — Causes of the wanderings of the Northmen and Danes — Countries explored or visited by the Northmen — Results of these invasions — Supremacy of the kingdom of Wessex — Importance of the reign of Alfred the Great — Alfred as administrator, writer, and soldier — His organization of the army and of the fleet — Treaty of Wedmore with the Danes — Results on England of the Danish invasions.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

HENDERSON, *Germany;* EMERTON, *Medieval Europe;* ADAMS, *Civilization;* DURUY, *Middle Ages;* CHURCH, *Beginning of Middle Ages;* BOYESEN, *The Study of Norway;* SHARON TURNER, *History of the Anglo Saxons;* KEMBLE, *Saxons in England;* HENDERSON, *Historical Documents;* CHAILLIS, *The Viking Age;* KEARY, *Vikings in Western Christendom;* HUGHES, *Alfred the Great;* PLUMMER, *Alfred the Great.*

CHAPTER VII

FEUDALISM AND MONASTICISM

92. **Two Saving Forces.**— The political disintegration of the Empire, and the invasions of the Danes seriously threatened the very existence of European civilization. But in the supreme hour of need there appeared certain forces that not only undid in great measure the havoc wrought by the Danes, but also compensated to a considerable extent for the internal damage wrought by political disunion and petty strife.

These forces were feudalism and monasticism. Feudalism furnished society with a means of defense against foreign invaders, and did away with political anarchy, while monasticism kept alive the light of learning, and maintained those spiritual ties of brotherhood upon which society so much depends.

93. **The Nature of Feudalism.**— Feudalism may be defined as a system of society based on land tenure. In its complete form it combines political rights with ownership of land on a large scale. In other words, a man is a judge, an administrator or a general only because he happens to have a certain quantity of land. In more general terms feudalism may be defined as a system of political organization connected with tenure of land and obligation of military service. Thus the main peculiarity of feudalism is that land was held by its owner on condition of his performing certain duties, especially duties of a military nature. The person to whom these duties had to be rendered might be the sovereign or he might be some one in subjection to the sovereign.

The origin of feudalism is rather obscure. Already in the

later times of the Roman Empire there had existed a practice of granting out portions of land to small tenants on fulfilment of certain conditions. These tenants were tied to the soil, but so long as they fulfilled the required conditions, they could not be driven away from their holdings. Then we have also seen how among the Germans the young warriors pledged their fidelity to some popular chieftain who in turn gave to them the support of his patronage and protection. These things, namely, the holding of land on the fulfilment of certain obligations, and the relationship between a warrior and his chieftain, when existing separately were not sufficient to constitute feudalism, but when they were combined the result was feudalism.

94. **The Elements of Feudalism.**— An analysis of the nature of feudalism will reveal its three principal elements.

First, the personal element, or vassalage. This was the relation existing between the dependent and his lord. In order to receive protection from some one more powerful than himself a man would commend himself to the protection of some lord. A person who thus "commended himself" became a vassal. This process of commendation consisted in the oath of homage and fealty, by which the dependent promised to be the vassal of his lord, and to be faithful to him.

Secondly, the real element, or benefice. This consisted of some piece of land that was rented out to the vassal in return for personal service. In the infancy of feudalism it is probable that the vassal was bound to attend his lord in war for any length of time that his services might be required. But in time the vassal gradually assumed a more independent position, and the period and nature of the service came to be strictly defined either by law or custom. Besides military service, the vassal might be called on to perform other duties; such as sitting in court with the other vassals in order to try

his fellow vassals, and to make certain money payments. Three of these payments were almost universal and were called ordinary aids: to ransom his lord's person from captivity, to provide a dowry for the marriage of the lord's eldest daughter, and to pay toward the expense of knighting the lord's eldest son.

The third political element of fuedalism was immunity. Already in Anglo-Saxon times the king granted out what was called sac and soc, by which was meant that certain estates were exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts. Also under the Merovingian kings, certain grants of land were declared free from the obligation of market and custom duties. Later on, a grant of land made by a king or a very powerful lord was accompanied with an express grant of jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, over his immediate tenants.

95. **Concrete Elements of Feudalism.**— These three elements convey some general abstract idea of the system of feudalism, but there are certain concrete details that may serve perhaps better than anything else to form a living picture of what feudalism really meant for that society where it was generally adopted. The chief institutions of feudalism are the noble, the tournament and the castle.

The Noble in medieval times was a holder of land for which he rendered services that were not usually performed by the lower classes of society. He was also supposed to be possessed of substantial means. The nobles were of various grades. There were dukes, counts marquises, and simple knights. But there was not that definite rank assigned to each, such as we find in our own times. In general, we may say that those who held lands directly from the king belonged to the highest rank, while at the bottom of the hierarchy of nobles stood the knight. There was an almost immeasurable difference between the knight and the person who was outside the

ranks of the nobility. The knight was generally a person of gentle birth, and he had to undergo some sort of an apprenticeship as page to some superior lord before he could receive the honor of knighthood. He was also supposed to be bound by a high code of honor and manly virtue.

The Tournament was a species of combat in which the combatants fought not necessarily out of enmity or to wipe off some stain of disgrace, but merely to exhibit their own personal prowess. The tournament was usually held at the invitation of some prince. Competitors were invited from distant lands. The game was regulated by most minute rules, and the highest personages in the land would preside and distribute the prizes. Owing to the frequency with which hatreds and strifes occured during these games, and the degrading influence they were supposed to exert on the spectator, the Church, from the middle of the twelfth to the middle of the thirteenth century, did her best to stop these spectacular exhibitions. She severly forbade any person to engage in them under pain of excommunication, and denial of Christian burial to such as lost their lives in the contest.

The Castle was a walled enclosure with a tower or towers strongly constructed so as to serve as a place of safety. Round the castle there was generally a ditch or moat. The thick and massive walls surrounding the castle were furnished with small projecting towers at the top called bastions. The entrance gate was flanked by two towers. All the doors, windows and staircases were generally very small and narrow. The strongest part of the castle was the donjon, or keep, which in Anglo-Saxon castles was attached to the walls, but in Norman castles was often separate from the rest of the structure. Such buildings often served as places of defense to the whole country in the vicinity. Little towns and villages would cluster for protection round the castle, whose owner in return sometimes enjoyed considerable jurisdiction.

Another result of feudalism was the formation of cavalry; not that this was any new thing, but under the influence of feudalism it assumed a new and very strategic importance. Most of the tournaments were fought on horseback, and the strength and agility of the horse, as well as the skill of the rider, were wonderfully developed by constant exercise.

96. **Benefits of Feudalism.**— A consideration, however brief, of the spirit of feudalism and the institutions to which it gave rise will soon show that scarcely anything else could have been so well adapted to meet the confusion and danger of the troublous times of the ninth and tenth centuries. The usual ties of authority and social concord were rapidly weakening, and for these feudalism substituted new ties that brought together every member of society, the highest and the lowest. Over all was the king, the chief land-owner, and as such, the chief possessor of jurisdiction; under him were the more important tenants, bound to him by their oaths of fidelity and homage; then under these tenants again were sub-tenants bound to their immediate lord by ties equally stringent. Even the Church was not outside this hierarchy, for the great majority of church lands were granted to ecclesiastics on condition of their performing spiritual services for those who thus became their over-lords and protectors. Society was thus knit firmly together by the universal and indissoluble ties which were furnished by feudalism. But feudalism did more than this. It furnished the material means of self-defense. When barbarian invaders were scouring the land in every direction it became a matter of supreme necessity that throughout the country there should be certain strongholds where the advance of the enemy might be firmly withstood, and the mediæval castle thus fulfilled a very important function. At the same time it was necessary to follow or to pursue and harass the enemy, much in the same way as the Boers harassed

A Tournament.

the invading English. Here the feudal cavalry did very important service. It is not too much to say that feudalism saved society both from its own disorders and from the hostile attacks of external aggressors.

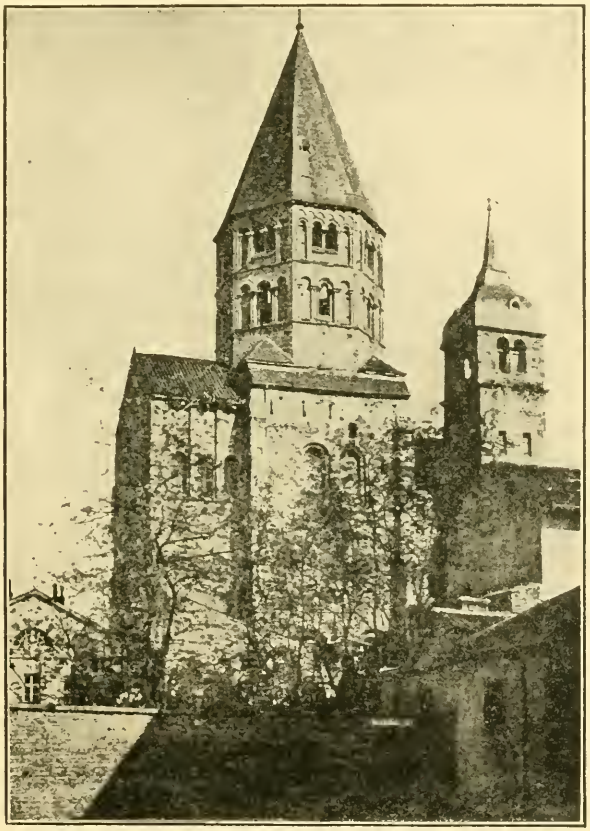
97. **Monasticism.**— But feudalism was not the only safeguard of society. There was another that acted rather on the mind and soul of society, that prevented society from lapsing into the mental darkness of barbarism and at the same time kept alive those interior virtues upon which, more than anything else, depend the existence and stability of society. This second safeguard was monasticism, which asserted itself in the celebrated Cluniac reform.

98. **Decline of the Old Orders.**— The reform of Benedict of Aniane during the early Carlovingian period had unfortunately been followed by a reaction. Great numbers of pastors had fallen off from the high ideals of their profession and were leading worldly lives. The decrees of the Pontiffs against certain clerical transgressors sufficiently testify to the evils of the times. Thus, although as the historian Hase admits, there were still many ecclesiastics eminent for their virtue, yet there were others who stood very much in need of a reform, and the necessary impetus in this direction was given by the Cluniac movement of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries.

99. **Rise of the Monks of Cluny.**— The monastery of Cluny was founded by Duke William of Acquitaine in 910. Under the spiritual guidance of Berno, their first superior, the monks of Cluny soon became famous for their piety and learning. In their silence, their choral recital of the canonical hours, in their rigorous penances, they were a shining beacon to the other religious institutions of the period.

The Cluniac reform differed in various ways from previous movements of a like nature.

First of all, the monks were more completely dependent



The Monastery of Cluny, at Cluny, 26 miles southwest of Chelous-sur-Saone. A large part of this splendid abbey was destroyed in 1789 when the monks were driven out.

upon the Holy See. To some extent such subjection has always been held necessary if a community wishes to acquire the status of a religious body. But previous to the Cluniac movement the bishop had also enjoyed a certain amount of jurisdiction,

For example, he could send the parish priest to perform certain duties in the monastery, or he could visit the monastery in order to correct certain abuses. But the monks of Cluny were declared by Pope Alexander II, to be entirely exempt from episcopal jurisdiction and this privilege was extended to all the foundations connected with Cluny.

Second, its organic formation differed considerably from the other Benedictine institutions that had preceded it; hitherto, monastic institutions had lived an independent life of their own, quite separate from any parent community to which they owed their existence. This was a disadvantage. Experience shows that no matter how pious the founder of an order may be, or how great the zeal and enthusiasm of its early followers, a reaction sooner or later sets in, and not even an Apostolic Visitor is always able to correct the abuses that follow. But Cluny was furnished with an excellent safeguard in this particular. The daughter communities of the abbey of Cluny were made strictly dependent upon their Burgundian parent. All local self-government was delegated to a prior, appointed by the abbot, to whom he was held responsible. By this arrangement a unity of discipline and co-operative action were secured and abuses in any of the daughter communities could be corrected by the parent house.

100. **The Effects of the Cluniac Movement** were considerable and far reaching. It tightened the bonds of unity between the different nations of Christendom. Monasteries received postulants from all parts of the world, and kings would often benefit religious foundations in far distant lands. One instance of this we find in the rich presents made by the king of Castile to the abbey of Cluny.

The Cluniac monastery was also a house of intellectual life. All abbots of Cluny, from St. Odo to Peter the Venerable were distinguished for their love of literature and zeal for ed-

ucation while from the "Customs" of Cluny arranged by the holy monk Udalic we gather that what is now done by the poor schools of the state was then done by the monks of Cluny.

But perhaps the crowning merit of the Cluniac movement was that it helped the pope in his herculean task of reforming the clergy, and through them the laity. For at a time when the pope in the performance of this task was abandoned by so many of the episcopate and lower clergy, the monks of Cluny stood forth valiantly as the champions of reform.

101. **Consolidation of England Under Archbishop Dunstan.**— The tenth century saw the completion of the Anglo-Saxon kingdom under the firm guidance of the first ecclesiastical statesman that figures on the pages of English History. This was Archbishop Dunstan, the minister of King Eadgar. His administration was national rather than provincial. Both Englishman and Dane were treated alike and admitted to the highest offices of state. Dunstan was also careful to revive education and to improve the zeal and sanctity of the clergy. Under his auspices communities of the new Cluniac form of Benedictinism were introduced into England. England also progressed from the commercial point of view. She entered into wider negotiations with foreign countries, and now foreign ships might be seen sailing up the Thames and merchants from distant parts might be seen bargaining in the streets of London.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Feudalism defined and described — Origin of Feudalism — Chief elements of feudalism — Vassalage — Benefice — Immunity — Important institutions of Feudalism — Aristocracy of feudalism — Different kinds of knighthood — Tournament — Castle — Cavalry — New political ties introduced by feudalism — Means of defence furnished by feudalism against the Danes — Monasticism the second saving element of society — Origin of the Cluniac movement — Exemption of the Cluniac monks from

episcopal jurisdiction — Daughter communities made dependent upon the parent community — Effects of the Cluniac reform — Administration of Archbishop Dunstan — Monasticism introduced into England — Foreign trade of England widely extended.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

EMERTON, *Introduction to Middle Ages, Chapter XVI;* SEIGNOBOS, *Feudal Régime;* TOUT, *Empire and Papacy;* ALDY, *Lectures on Feudalism;* LUCHAIRE, *Manual des Institutions Francaises;* CHEYNEY, *Introduction to the Industrial and Social Life of England;* SEEBOHM, *English Village Community;* ANDREWS, *The Old English Manor;* LACROIX, *Military and Religious Life;* FISHER, *History of the Christian Church;* STEVENS, *Continuation of Dugdale's Monasticism;* ALZOG, *Church History;* GREEN, *History of England, page 55 to 61;* also *Acta Sanctorum of the Bollandists, tom IV, 344–384;* CHALMERS, *Biographical Dictionary.*

CHAPTER VIII

PARALLEL DEVELOPMENT OF FRANCE AND GERMANY

102. Decay of the Carlovingian Empire.— We have seen that the treaty of Verdun meant the disintegration of the empire and the weakening of the Carlovingian house. It was not long before the process reached the critical stage. The division that had fallen to Lothair containing the two capitals, Aachen and Rome, soon divided into the following branches: Upper and Lower Lorraine in the north, the kingdom of Burgundy lower down, and in the south the kingdom of Italy — all these were governed by feeble kings and were reduced to a wretched condition by anarchy and petty local oppression. In France and in Germany also there were disunion and strife, local magnates waxing strong against the central authority of the king. Only once indeed did there appear to be some restoration of the old Carlovingian power. This was during the reign of Charles the Fat, son of Louis of Germany. In default of other rightful heirs, he was crowned emperor in 881, and in 885 became king of France. Thus, for a short time, the whole of the old Carlovingian Empire, with the exception of Provence, a little government in southeastern France, became united under one Carlovingian sovereign. But Charles the Fat proved an incapable ruler. When the Danes invaded Paris he bribed them to transfer their attack elsewhere, and so great was the indignation of his nobles that he was deposed in 887.

This meant the sudden disruption of the empire. Instead of three kingdoms there now appeared seven: namely, Italy, Germany, Lorraine, France, Navarre, Cis-Juran and Trans-Juran Burgundy. But amidst this debris of fallen kingdoms,

there might be seen in France and Germany certain constructive elements which in different ways and at different periods were to build up two powerful nations.

103. **Rise of Hugh Capet.**— The relations between Hugh the vassal count of Paris, and Louis IV now began to assume a striking resemblance to the relations between the mayor of the palace and the decaying Merovingian monarchs. In both cases the result was the same, and in both cases it was the pope who gave the signal for the revolution. Pope Silvester II declared that "he who is king in deeds and in fact should also be king in title."

The real power had indeed drifted entirely into the hands of Hugh. Not indeed that this was any fault of Louis. Louis had shown himself an able ruler, and had displayed considerable military ability. It was the new system of feudalism that was responsible for the change. Hugh, the duke of the French, was by far the most powerful landowner in the kingdom, and as we have already seen, the feudal landowner as such enjoyed political jurisdiction.

104. **Hugh Helped by the Church.**— Besides feudal support there was also the support of the Church. Not only the pope, but also the French bishops under Archbishop Adalberon of Rheims were on the side of Hugh Capet. There were also the great ecclesiastical fiefs, some of the most influential being situated in Normandy. All these were naturally devoted to Hugh Capet.

One might easily fall into the temptation of exaggerating Hugh's position. In fact he was recognized as king only by a part of France. In the south he had great difficulty in asserting his claims. In Aquitaine, the decrees ran "until there should be a king"; nor was he recognized in Poitou and Brittany. But the accession of Hugh is important as starting

a form of dynastic government that was to rule France for many centuries.

105. **The Different Provinces of France.**— In order to gain a clear idea of the exact position of Hugh Capet, and in order to understand frequent geographical allusions it will be helpful if we consider the principal provinces of France at that time, starting from the northeast.

Normandy was situated in the extreme northeast of France. The latter Carlovingian kings had allowed the Northmen to settle on this territory on condition that Rollo, their leader, should embrace Christianity. The whole country had become considerably Christianized, and at the time of Hugh there were some important ecclesiastical benefices that tended to uphold the influence of the king. One duke, William of Normandy, became famous as conqueror and king of England.

Flanders was the district lying between the rivers Somme and Scheldt. Part of it was dependent upon the empire, and part of it upon France. It soon became the nest of important towns such as Ghent and Bruges. These owed their origin to the Scandinavian invasions that forced the people to cluster together for protection. Flanders, owing to its position and fertile soil, soon became remarkable for its commerce and manufactures.

Brittany is that part of France which together with the Spanish coast encloses the Bay of Biscay. It contains a very strong Celtic element. As early as 284 some of the Britons in England pursued by the Saxons went over to Brittany, and these, as well as later migrations gave the province its name. For some time Brittany was under Normandy, but after the Normans were driven out, it fell under the lordship of the French kings, but it did not become a part of the French monarchy till the thirteenth century.

Maine and Anjou.— These two countships also play an im-

portant part in history. Maine, whose chief town was Le Mans, lay between Normandy and Anjou, which were hereditary enemies. Like most buffer states it fell a prey to one of the contending parties and in 1063 was conquered by the Duke of Normandy. Later it was united with Anjou. The countship of Anjou (its capital was Angers) became famous for giving to England a line of able kings called the Angevin Dynasty, the most prominent of whom was Henry II.

Blois and Champagne.— These were also two countships which though situated far apart were connected by marriage. Champagne is noted for its two towns of Troyes and Rheims. The former was important for its trade and is said to have given its name to Troy weight, while the latter was already known as a famous ecclesiastical centre. The house of Blois also gave to England a king in the person of Count Stephen.

The southern provinces of France afford rather a striking contrast to the northern provinces. In the southern provinces, the Romance element prevailed and showed itself not only in the character but also in the smoother speech of the inhabitants — their dialect being called the *langue d'oc* in contradistinction to the harsher dialect of the northern called the *langue d'oui*. Political differences also accompanied the racial differences. In the south, the feudal system lasted longest and was constantly opposed to the centralizing monarchical power of the north.

Burgundy was situated to the southwest of France. The various territories covered by this name have already been pointed out. In building up the power of the Capetian kings, Burgundy occupied very nearly the same position as Normandy. It contained a great many religious benefices whose powerful influence tended to curtail the power of the dukes and to increase the power of the king.

Aquitaine was situated between the rivers Loire and Garonne. The dukes of Aquitaine were over-lords of all the

lands between the Loire and the Pyrenees. In the twelfth century it belonged temporarily to France but in 1152 by the marriage of Henry II. of England with Elinor the heiress of Aquitaine the province became an English possession and remained such for a considerable time.

Poitou, Guienne and **Gascony** were districts situated on the west coast of France, south of Brittany. These provinces like Aquitaine also became English possessions. Both Gascony and Guienne were important on account of the great trade with England. It was from them that during the middle ages she obtained most of her wine and salt.

Toulouse lay to the east of Gascony. Its counts ruled over all the lands of southern France not subject to Aquitaine, and their jurisdiction covered such important towns as Nimes and Narbonne.

Such were the principal fiefs of France at this period. The early Capetian kingdom seemed only one amongst many; but it had on its side kingly power, and the influence of the great ecclesiastical estates. Partly by force, partly by diplomacy and the natural sequence of events the Capetian monarchy gradually absorbed into itself also its rival neighbors.

106. **Affairs in Germany.**— A similar process of development was also taking place in Germany. Arnulf, Duke of Carinthia in the southeast, had been mainly instrumental in procuring the deposition of Charles the Fat. Arnulf, in 887 was then left in possession of the German crown. After a fairly prosperous reign in the course of which he beat the Danes near Louvain and secured an acknowledgment of his independence from Burgundy, Italy and the West Franks, he died in 899. His son Louis the Child succeeded, and during this reign were established the four great duchies of Germany which rivaled in importance the great fiefs of the Frankish kingdom.

107. **The Chief Duchies of Germany.**— These duchies were Saxony in the northeast of Germany, Franconia in the west, Swabia in the south, and Bavaria in the southeast. Though, from the territorial point of view there was little difference in power among the duchies, yet the Saxon duchy was certainly the strongest. Not only was it free from the enervating influence of decayed Roman civilization and still in full possession of the old vigorous Teutonic polity, but its position was such as to foster all the martial virtues and a strong government. It was a border state, and being constantly threatened by the Danes and Wends the struggle for existence braced up its whole political life.

108. **Conrad I.**— Frankish tradition however still prevailed, and on the death of Louis the Child, the nobles of Franconia, Saxony, and Swabia elected Conrad, Duke of Franconia, as king Conrad I. Their choice was certainly justified by the qualities of the one whom they elected. But new circumstances often mar the reigns of very able rulers. Conrad had almost insuperable difficulty in asserting his authority in the German duchies outside his own, and at the same time he was continually harassed by the invasions of the Danes. He himself perceiving that on the one hand he had not the old prestige of the Carlovingian kings and on the other that he had not sufficient compensating material power advised his brother Eberhard not to claim the throne when it became vacant but to waive his right in behalf of Henry of Saxony.

109. **Henry the Fowler.**— When therefore Conrad I died in 918 the kingly power passed to Henry the Fowler of Saxony. There was little doubt that Henry was the fitter man to succeed. His personal gifts were unquestionable. As statesman and as warrior he was unrivaled, and the temporary union of Saxony and Franconia, as well as the vigor-

ous supremacy of the Saxon duchy, were circumstances that strongly counted in his favor.

110. **Danish Rule in England.**— The same period that saw the rise of the Capetian dynasty also saw the complete subjection of England to Danish rule. Under the great Danish king, Cnut, England was brought together in still closer unity. His iron rule crushed out all provincial differences, and although he created the four great earldoms of Mercia, Northumberland, Wessex, and East Anglia, yet they were kept in close dependence upon the crown. Under his rule the condition of the people underwent a change for the better. The lower class of servile or semi-servile laborers was improved until it attained almost complete freedom, while on the other hand the old native baronage was reduced to a lower level by the intrusion of the foreign baronage. A strong middle class was thus gradually coming into existence and this tended to diffuse general comfort and prosperity. At the same time the roving spirit of the Danes tended to promote trade and intercourse with foreign nations. Not only Scandinavia but now even Russia and Constantinople exchanged their wares for those of the English merchants.

Cnut died in 1035 and with him ended the best period of Danish rule in England.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Break-up of the old Carolingian Empire — Successors of Charles the Fat of France — Gradual approach of Count Hugh to the royal power — Hugh declared king by Sylvester II — Hugh's power resting upon feudalism and royal power — Chief provinces of France — Normandy — Flanders — Brittany — Maine and Anjou — Blois and Champagne — Southern Provinces — Burgundy — Aquitaine, Poitou, Guienne and Gascony — Political development in Germany — The four great national duchies — Election of Conrad I, Duke of Franconia, as king — Henry the Fowler the first of the Saxon kings — England brought into closer unity under the Danish king Cnut — The four great earl-

doms in dependence on the crown — Condition of the middle and of the lower classes — Expansion of English trade.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

KITCHIN, *History of France;* SUGER, *Life of Louis VI;* ADAMS, *French Nation;* TOUT, *Empire and Papacy;* SISMONDI, *Histoire des Francais;* HENDERSON, *Germany;* EMERTON, *Europe;* FISHER, *Medieval Empire;* LAVISSE, *Political History of Europe;* GREEN, *Conquest of England;* POWELL AND TOUT, *History of England.*

CHAPTER IX

THE SAXON KINGS

111. **Rule of Henry the Fowler.**— The secret of the success of Henry the Fowler's reign lay in this that he recognized and made the best of accomplished facts. He saw that the days of the personal rule of the Carlovingian kings were over, and that he must now reign as a feudal king. He therefore governed Germany only through the dukes and exacted from these dukes only the performance of feudal duties.

He succeeded in improving greatly the internal condition of Germany. One of the great features of his reign was the erection of walled towns that served as healthy centers of social intercourse and growing civilization. Within these towns, fairs and markets were held, and gradually out of the more condensed population there came to be formed a large and powerful citizen class. He also improved the condition of the army. For not only did he insist on a better training of the soldiers, but he also formed a strong cavalry corps — a great innovation, for hitherto the Saxons had fought on foot.

The internal strength of the kingdom soon enabled him to deal firmly with foreign enemies. In 924 he defeated the Slavs and took Brandenburg, one of their chief strongholds. In 933 he was equally successful against the Danes and took from them a strip of land that afterwards became known as the Duchy of Schleswig.

The victorious career of Henry the Fowler was ended by his death in 936. He was then succeeded by his son Otto I.

112. **Otto I** had a very different character from that of his father. Henry the Fowler had adopted a policy that was quite in harmony with existing facts. But Otto was am-

bitious and tried to revert to the old Carlovingian idea of supreme personal authority. To do this it was necessary to secure the active support of the Church; and the first step in this direction was the crowning of Otto with great pomp and solemnity at the old capital of Aachen. He then endeavored to create a school of clerical statesmen into whose hands were entrusted the most important concerns of state.

113. **Personal Rule of Otto.**— Unlike his predecessor, Otto I. was not content to govern the German people through the great dukes, but he determined to introduce his own personal government into every province of Germany. He therefore reduced as much as possible the power of the local magnates and distributed the most powerful duchies among his own relatives and personal friends. Thus he made his brother Henry Duke of Bavaria. Then after defeating his faithless son-in-law Conrad, Duke of Lorraine, he made over the duchy to his brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne, while Suabia was entrusted to Otto's eldest son Ludolph. Nor was he content with this; he appointed Counts Palatine throughout the different duchies who, like the Carlovingian "missi dominici" represented in the local districts the interests of the crown.

114. **Foreign Affairs.**— With regard to foreign invasions no contrast is to be found between the reigns of Henry the Fowler and Otto I. When the Hungarians renewed their aggressions he inflicted upon them a crushing defeat on the Lech river near Augsburg (955). He was also successful against the Slavs, and the Bohemians. And in order to lessen the dread of future invasions he established all along the east frontier a line of small border-lands or marches, that were thoroughly fortified. One of these in the southeast of Germany afterwards became Austria.

The most notable element of Otto's foreign policy was his interference with Italian affairs. Italy at that time was hopelessly divided among contending factions. The Pope, the Greeks, the Duchess of Benevento and Spoleto, the Saracens and the Lombards — all these were living upon Italian soil, leading an existence of strife and rivalry. Berengar, the last of the Lombard kings, died, and the succession was disputed between Lothair, King of Arles, and Berengar of Ivres in Piedmonte. During the contest, Lothair died leaving a widow called Adelaide. Otto soon saw his opportunity of intervention. He settled the dispute by crossing the frontier, and marrying Adelaide. Then without being formally crowned, he became the virtual king of Italy.

115. **Otto's Relations with the Church** then enabled him to strengthen still further his position in Italy. The most important archbishopries of Germany were those of Cologne, Besançon, and Trier in west Germany, and Mainz, Salzburg, and Aquileia, on the eastern side of Germany. Nearly all these had very extensive jurisdiction. Cologne, for example, had jurisdiction over all the Netherlands. But Mainz had the most extensive jurisdiction of all, embracing central and north Germany. It had also control over the bishopric and towns that Otto had set up in the east marks of Germany. Circumstances now made it desirable that these marks should be held together by a greater unity of local jurisdiction and Otto determined to set up another archbishopric at Magdeburg which should have jurisdiction over all these eastern marks. The Archbishop of Mainz, who was rather worldly-minded, opposed this curtailment of his spiritual power and Otto saw that he would have to fall back on the assistance of the Pope.

It so happened that just at this time Pope John XII was particularly in need of the assistance of the emperor. The pope, through the influence of the duke of Tuscany, had suc-

ceeded in raising himself to the papal throne. But Berengar, the hereditary enemy of Tuscany, was exercising great tyranny over the papacy and the Church. Otto crossed the Alps by the Brenner pass, entered Rome and sealed an alliance with the papacy by getting himself crowned emperor in 962. A few days after, the emperor, by way of return, issued a diploma securing to the pope the possession that had been granted to the Holy See by Constantine and succeeding princes.

116. **Otto I Crowned as Emperor.**— This crowning of the emperor by the pope marks a new phase in the history of the Italian Roman Empire. The empire was still supposed to be in substance what it had been under Charlemagne, but in reality it had become greatly altered. Territorially, it embraced only Germany and Italy, and the emperor's rule in Italy was only intermittent. But to many of Otto's successors, it recalled the memory of what had been in the past and had an important effect upon their general policy. It prevented their concentrating their energies upon their own German territory, and by arousing ambitious ideas of a universal empire, caused them to neglect the practical and more urgent task of forming at home a united Germany.

Such disastrous results, however, did not show themselves at once. Owing to the support of the pope, Otto's power was now so firmly established in Germany, that he succeeded in his design of creating a separate archbishopric at Magdeburg. In fact, Otto's reign seemed to have realized all the advantages without the disadvantages of the German Italian Empire.

117. **Otto the Second** succeeded in 983. As the son of Adelaide and the husband of Theophano, daughter of the Greek emperor, his interests were already more Italian and

Greek than Teutonic. His mind was highly imaginative and he dreamed of an empire that should extend far beyond the boundaries of his native Germany.

Italy became the main scene of his activity. When the popes were being deprived of their liberty of action by the powerful Crescentius he marched to Rome and forced Crescentius to withdraw to the seclusion of a monastery. When the Mohammedans were threatening the Lombard duchy of Benevento, he hastened to its assistance and drove off the invaders. He even tried to get possession of the Greek territories in Italy that had been promised to him as the marriage dowry of Theophano, and a number of towns in the south of Italy fell into his hands.

118. **Political Tendencies Under Otto.**— Nor was the policy of Otto II altogether unsuccessful. At first, Germany seemed to be growing on the same lines of unification as under Otto I. There was still the original tendency to break up large political units into smaller ones, more dependent on the royal power. Already, even under Otto I, a considerable strip of land that had previously been dependent on Saxony, was placed under a separate ruler, Gero, and allowed considerable independence.

This progress, however, depended entirely on the personal activity of the emperor. When he began to occupy himself exclusively with Italian affairs the strong local units of Germany, each tending away from the central government in order to revolve in its own sphere, began to cause serious trouble. Not only did the petty dukes, counts and ecclesiastical magnates seize the land, but a fatal want of cohesion also showed itself, that brought about powerlessness to resist foreign invasions. The Slavs and the Wends renewed their invasions with greater success than before. Two bishoprics on the eastern frontier were devastated and the town of Hamburg was destroyed.

Amidst these reverses in Germany Otto was suddenly visited with a fatal disease from which he died in the year 983.

Otto III, son of Otto II, was only three years old at his father's death and determined attempts were made by the duke of Bavaria to upset the succession. Had it not been for the fidelity of the greater part of the clergy, Otto would undoubtedly have been ousted. He became therefore greatly dependent upon the clergy. When his mother, Theophano, who had acted as regent, died, the council of regency consisted mainly of clerics who moulded his mind in their own way. Otto's training soon showed itself when he came of age, as well by his cosmopolitan ideas as by his devotion and the goodness of his life.

119. **Otto III Interferes in the Papal Elections.**— When in 996, Otto set off to Rome for his imperial coronation, the Holy City was a prey to two contending factions. On the one hand there were the partizans of Crescentius who supported a papal nominee of their own, and on the other hand there was the opposite party that wanted a German pope. On arriving at Ravenna he met an embassy that had been sent to him from Rome in order to consult him as to the new pope. He at once named his own nephew Bruno. The Roman clergy and laity willingly followed the suggestion, and elected Bruno, who took the name of Pope Gregory V. This election of the first German pope that ever sat on the chair of Peter at once brought about a most useful harmony between the empire and the Church.

The new pope, however, did not live long. His life of sanctity and usefulness was cut short by an early death in 999. In the election of his successor, Otto III again played a very important part. His influence placed on the papal throne Gerbert, a Frenchman, a native of Aurillac in

Auvergne, who, assuming the name of Silvester II, became (999) the first French Pope in the history of the Church. He was a man of great learning, and at the University of Cordova in Spain had acquired a proficient acquaintance with scientific subjects. He had also taken part in European politics, and it was his intervention in behalf of the rising Capetian house that brought him into contact with Otto II of Germany. When Hugh Capet was made king, Gerbert was made Archbishop of Rheims, which diocese he afterward exchanged for that of Ravenna. Both these positions he had filled with conspicuous prudence and firmness and it would have been hard to find a more fit candidate even for the papal throne.

120. **Otto's Failure in Germany.**— A great contrast to Otto's achievement in Italy was his failure in Germany. There it had become plain that an imperial policy meant constant friction with the best interests of the German nation. The Germans had been used to see in the character of their rulers rugged simplicity and hard activity, and their traditional sense of what was fitting was marred by Otto's conduct in Italy. He had also added to the offense by assuming more than oriental etiquette. Clad in loose, long, flowing robes, he was only approachable through a long series of officials, while Rome itself was placed under the control of officials whose authority was partly papal, partly imperial. Together with these signs of imperial domination Otto had also shown a disregard for Teutonic interests by setting up a separate archbishopric in Poland, and thus recognizing its independence in Germany.

The disturbed condition of affairs in Germany necessitated the immediate presence of the emperor, but directly he turned his back upon Italy, the southern provinces of Italy rose in revolt. While the storm was thus at its height, Otto III died,

conscious that his ambitious schemes had all ended in failure (1002).

121. **Successors of Otto III.**— The two immediate successors to Otto III. were Henry II and Conrad II. Both of these kings were shrewd, practical men. They abandoned the visionary schemes of the Ottos, and leaving Italy to its fate tried to consolidate the greatness of Germany on local lines.

Henry II has been sometimes called Henry the Pious and King of Priests on account of his sympathy with the clerics. But his clerical sympathies were very different from those of Otto. He left the papacy alone and tried to conciliate rather the German clergy, whom he hoped to make an efficient counterpoise to the power of the nobles. The policy of Henry II succeeded in restoring order and strength to Germany. His appreciation of the limits of his power, his knowledge of the relation between the means and the end, prevented him from indulging in those schemes that had been so fatal to his predecessors.

Henry II died in 1024 without issue and then there quickly rose the question of succession. The troubles of the times made immediate action absolutely necessary, and the nobles at once met together in order to choose a candidate. The method of the election was interesting. It seems to have depended not so much upon hereditary principles as upon the personal qualifications of who should succeed. The object of their choice was Conrad of Franconia, who then became the founder of the Franconian or, Salian, dynasty.

122. **Return of the Anglo-Saxon Dynasty in England.**— The tyranny and oppression of Cnut's successors made the Danish rule unbearable to the nation. Earl Godwin saw that the Danish cause was hopeless and on the death of

Harthacnut he procured a reversion of the succession to the Anglo-Saxon line. Edward, son of King Ethelred, was then in exile, but was speedily recalled and made king. Edward's rule was remarkable for its firmness and clemency. He himself, on account of his eminent sanctity, has been surnamed the Confessor, while Godwin, his minister, was a man of consummate caution, vigilance and industry. But the lawlessness of Godwin's relations brought about his fall and exile. After one year of exile, Godwin was recalled but died soon after, leaving his son Harold as successor to the post of minister. Harold, like his father, showed a remarkable talent for government and organization. Revolts were at once put down, justice was firmly administered and commerce extensively promoted. It was not difficult to foresee the result. While Edward was slowly sinking to the grave, Harold drew nearer to the throne, and when Edward died in 1066, Harold immediately succeeded him as Harold II.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Reign of Henry the Fowler — Walled towns as centers of civilization — Henry's defeat of the Slavs — Otto I — His alliance with the Church — His extending the royal power by making his relatives rulers of the provinces — His victories over the Slavs and Bohemians — Otto's interference in Italy — His obtaining a new archbishopric at Madgeburg — Is crowned emperor by Pope John XII — Meaning of the new empire — Its results on Germany and Italy — Otto II's ambitious schemes — He divides up the larger political units of Germany into other smaller and more dependent ones — Otto II's absence in Italy causes troubles — Otto III — His training and ideals — Otto III interferes in Rome and sets up Gregory V and after him Sylvester II — Otto III's unpopularity and his failure in Germany — Disturbances in Italy and in Germany — Failure of Otto III — Henry II's reign — His moderation and his success — In England, reign of Edward the Confessor — Administration of Godwin — Accession of Harold to the throne.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

FREEMAN, *Holy Roman Empire;* BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire;* TOUT, *Empire and Papacy;* HENDERSON, *History of Germany;* EMERTON, *Europe;* ALZOG, *Church History;* POWELL AND TOUT, *History of England;* GREEN, *History of English People.*

CHAPTER X

SALIAN EMPERORS AND THE INVESTITURE QUESTION

123. **Conrad II.**—The two first Salian Emperors were Conrad II and Henry III. Both of these men were well versed in practical politics, and were gifted with remarkable energy of character — a quality that counted for much in the Middle Ages. While they had no very high ideals, yet they aimed at what was possible of achievement and knew how to turn present movements to their own advantage.

Conrad II succeeded both in enlarging the boundaries of his German Kingdom and in consolidating its internal greatness. In speaking about the different kingdoms that went under the name of Burgundy, we have seen that there were two kingdoms called respectively Cis-Juran and Trans-Juran Burgundy. In the year 933 both these kingdoms were united under the name of the Kingdom of Arles. The king of Arles was now old and childless, and some provision had to be made regarding the succession. By a friendly arrangement, the kingdom was allowed to go to the German Empire and so in 1032 the Empire received this important addition to its territories. The importance of this acquisition can be measured only when considered in relation with the politics of the times. The Arelate kingdom was one of the great centers of the Cluniac movement, and thus it tended to increase the Cluniac movement already begun in Germany. France became more isolated from general European politics and the German emperor had a freer hand in Italy. Though the emperor had little personal control over his new possession, the sympathies of the Arelate nobles were mainly German. The emperor exercised what jurisdiction he had by means of

a chancellor whose seat of power was at Treves — thus reminding us of a similar institution in the government of Italy — which was ruled by the chancellor at Cologne.

124. **Alliance of Emperor and People.**—Perhaps the most signal proof not only of the good fortune but of the adroit statesmanship of Conrad is the way in which he increased the power of the crown at the expense of the great feudal nobles. The question had arisen as to whether the estates of the lesser tenants should be handed down from father to son, as was the case with the estates of the great feudal vassals. The greater nobles, in order to strengthen their own power refused to admit the hereditary principle in regard to the lower tenants. But Conrad posed as the protector of the lower vassals. He insisted that their estates should be hereditary, and thus gained a great diplomatic victory. For the extension of the hereditary principle not only strengthened the dynastic hold over the empire but it also secured to the emperor the unswerving allegiance of the great mass of fighting men throughout the country.

Conrad II died in 1039 and he was succeeded at once by his son Henry III.

125. **Henry III.**— Under Henry III the empire rose to its greatest strength. Germany became in effect the leading nation of Europe and the controller of its destinies.

The internal strife that had marred the early greatness of the emperors was now over, while as yet there appeared no symptoms of the terrific struggle that was shortly to take place between the Empire and the Church.

126. **Synod of Sutri.**— The most striking event of Henry III's reign was the synod of Sutri (1046) at which two out of three rival popes were deposed, while in the midst of

tumult Henry succeeded in securing the election of a candidate of his own.

The new pope was a German bishop noted for his piety and learning. He assumed the title of Clement II and his reign soon put an end to some of the scandalous disorders of his predecessors. Lest the support of the emperor might in any way prejudice the future independence of the Church he insisted on presenting himself to the Roman people for election.

This intervention of the emperor put an end to the evil domination of the counts of Tusculum in Church affairs. From now, the wearers of the tiara were at least no longer a disgrace to Christendom. Under the influence of the German emperor, there were elected popes of distinguishd piety and ardent zeal for the betterment of the Church. One of these was Pope Leo IX. This able pontiff strove to exericse a strong personal supervision over the remotest parts of Christendom, and his visits to France and Germany remind one of the imperial progresses of some of the later emperors.

127. **Normans in Italy.**— The Normans, as we have already seen, had obtained a firm settlement in the north of France. Being fond of adventure and inclined to piety they took a great delight in making pilgrimages. It thus came about that a number of Normans went on a visit to the sanctuary of St. Michael in southwest Italy. The delightful climate and rich soil prolonged their stay. After a life of some years of exciting adventure they were allowed by the duke of Naples to settle down in the town of Aversa, near Naples (1030).

128. **Alliance Between the Pope and the Normans.**— It was not long before the Normans extended their territory. In alliance with the Greeks they succeeded in taking Sicily

from the Saracens. The victory had the effect of violently dissolving the alliance, the Greeks claiming the exclusive glory of the victory, and as a consequence, the exclusive appropriation of its spoils. The angry Normans then by way of compensation took possession of Apulia, and this province was ruled in succession by three able dukes of the noble house of Hauteville. Acquisitions of this kind, however, were not likely to go unchallenged. Both Henry III and Pope Leo IX advanced in the direction of Cirtella with a body of German soldiers. Again the Normans were victorious, but respecting, in their hour of victory, the dignity of the supreme Pontiff whom they had made prisoner, they fell on their knees before him and implored forgiveness. He readily pardoned them and an alliance between the papacy and the Normans was soon effected — an alliance that was destined to be in after times the main support of the papacy in its hour of direst need.

129. **Reform of Papal Elections.**— The next process in strengthening and making more independent the position of the papacy was an alteration made in the method of holding papal elections. Up to 1059 the election of the pope had been in the hands of the emperor and of the Roman people. Such a method of election was attended with great abuses, for the Roman people formed a very unwieldy and disorderly mass of electors, while the emperor might or might not be influenced by worldly motives.

Nicholas II in 1059 applied a remedy by decreeing that in future the College of Cardinals should alone constitute the electoral body.

Thus the papacy by the altered method of holding the papal elections as well as by its close alliance with the Normans was placed in a stronger and more independent position. The papacy had indeed owed much to the patronage of the emper-

ors, but it now gave signs of being able to lead a more isolated and independent life; at the same time, circumstances were already tending to bring about a complete rupture between the empire and the papacy. The ill-defined relations between Church and State, and the confused notions resulting from the Holy Roman Empire were mainly responsible for this, but the immediate question which formed the battle cry of both sides was the question of investiture, that is whether the bishop or the temporal lord was to invest a newly made prelate with the spiritual insignia of his office.

130. **The Investiture Contest.**— In tracing the history of the Investiture Contest it will be helpful to consider first of all the more general issues at stake, for it was these more than the specific question of investiture that brought about the conflict.

Up to the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the Church and State had been conceived as forming one society. But now both Church and State began to assert in a most distinct way their own separate existence. In the conception of the Holy Roman Empire they had been loosely and erroneously considered as forming one society. But in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the element of distinction between the two societies loomed into view. It was a common occurrence for a man to be a bishop, and yet, as holding a large fief, be an important factor in the state. At once the question was bound to rise: "Which society is to claim the bishop and fief-holder? Under whose jurisdiction does he come? Under that of the Church or of the State?"

Such was the general complexion of the contest between the Church and Empire in the early middle ages and this brief account of the question at issue will enable us to appreciate with greater clearness the more detailed description of the several points that were raised.

131. **Details of the Questions Between Church and State.** — First, there was the reform of the Church. The holders of spiritual benefices often led careless and worldly lives, thinking more of the temporal emoluments of their offices than of its serious responsibilities. A reform was imperatively urgent. Yet any reform if carried out would involve the freedom of the German bishops and abbots from their dependence on the emperor. They might, it is true, become more clerical, but in their exclusive regard for the interests of the Church they would be apt to ignore the political interests of their imperial patron.

Closely connected with the general reform of the clergy was the question of clerical celibacy. This had already been prescribed by very ancient statutes. But the observance of the law seems to have been generally lax. Feudalism had certainly been an impediment rather than a help to its observance. The bishop or prelate that held a great fief naturally desired to keep the fief in the hands of his own family, and marriage was the most efficient means for this purpose. The position of the prelate in consequence was considerably degraded. Ignoring the spiritual side of his office, he tended to regard himself as a mere feudal magnate.

The third and most immediate point at issue between the Church and State was that of investiture. Who was to invest a newly made prelate with the ring and crozier, the sacred symbols of his office? The Church regarding him as her officer claimed that she alone could do this, while the State looking to his capacity as a holder of land insisted that this was her right. This more than anything else was a question of positive fact, and it had the effect of bringing to a head the discord that had been raised by the general aspect of the situation.

132. **Character of Gregory VII.**— In 1056 Henry III died and his son Henry IV succeeded, and during his reign Pope

Gregory VII ascended the papal throne. Gregory's personal appearance was dwarfish and insignificant, and his utterance was affected by a slight stammer, but within there was a soul distinguished by singleness of principle and indomitable energy of character. Like all great minds his whole life was swerved by one dominant idea and that idea was the exaltation of God's Church upon earth. It was Gregory's unselfish devotion to this great object, together with the high integrity of his private life, that made him the most prominent man of his times.

He at once made clear the position of the Church in the matter of investiture. He forbade under pain of excommunication any bishop or abbot to receive investiture from a lay ruler, and under like penalties he forbade any lay ruler to presume to invest any spiritual officer with the insignia of his spiritual office.

A king investing a bishop by giving him the crosier, or pastoral staff.

133. **Contest Between Gregory VII and Henry IV.**— The resulting contest was sharp and made both emperor and pope fight with all the weapons at their command. But it soon became clear that the pope's position was the stronger of the two. There were on his side the Saxon nobles who, being disaffected toward the emperor took the side of the pope; there was in France, Germany, and Italy the eminent array of the supporters of the Cluniac reform, all of them devoted adherents of the central jurisdiction of the papacy. There was the Countess Mathilda who held an enormous estate in Tuscany, and finally the Normans, who ever since the alliance with Pope Leo IX, had been faithful supporters of

the pope. Henry's position in Germany was soon made intolerable by the pope's violent activity. He saw that resistance was useless and hastening across the Alps went to Canossa, one of Mathilda's castles where the pope was now staying. With every sign of abject submission he submitted to the Holy Father. Gregory received him paternally, absolved him from his faults and restored him to his kingdom.

This reconciliation, however, was very far from settling the question. Henry's abject submission united the German nobles against the papacy. In fact, even at the present day the sentence "Be sure we shall not go to Canossa" engraved on Bismarck's monument at Harzburg bears witness of Germany's enduring memory of the humiliation she had once undergone. Moreover, the reconciliation was too indefinite.

134. **Temporary Defeat of the Papacy.**— The contest broke out again, and this time the odds were more equal. Henry found in Germany many adherents of his cause, while in Italy he was supported by a strong faction bitterly hostile to the pope. In 1084 the armed forces of Henry beat those of the pope. Gregory was besieged in the castle of St. Angelo, and Guibert, Archbishop of Ravenna, was enthroned in his place. But in the hour of peril the pope was rescued by his Norman friends under Robert Guiscard, and Gregory was able to withdraw into exile where he died uttering these words: "I loved justice and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile." The position of the papacy, however, was now gradually retrieved when Urban II became pope, in 1088. His first act was to put down the antipope Clement III. He then succeeded in bringing about a marriage between the senventeen year old prince of Bavaria and the Countess Mathilda and thus effected a union between the papal forces in Germany and those in

Italy. Skilful diplomacy also won over to the papal side the hitherto anti-papal district of Lombardy. And even these local triumphs fade in importance when Urban II at the Council of Piacenza in Italy and Clermont in France invited the whole Christian world to take part in the crusade against the Turk. In the midst of these papal triumphs Henry IV died, conscious that the best fruits of his previous victories had been lost. His successor was his son who became Henry V (1106).

135. **Renewal of the Contest.**— Though Henry V during his father's reign had taken the part of the pope, he now reverted to his father's policy and insisted on the secular rights of investiture. The pope, Pascal II, sternly upheld the rights of the Church and thus we enter upon the second phase of the investiture contest. The result was a compromise in which the pope, on condition of receiving the right of investiture, agreed to surrender to the emperor all the Church lands saving his own. This compromise was praiseworthy in essence, but it implied ideas of separation of Church and State that were ahead of those times. In any case it was bound to offend the great bulk of the clergy, who saw their own temporal interests thus lavishly surrendered while the pope retained possession of his own lands.

136. **Concordat of Worms.**— Again, therefore, was the contest renewed, and the third and last phase of the investiture question was the celebrated Concordat of Worms (1122), between Henry V and Calixtus II, one of the successors of Pascal II. The terms of the celebrated concordat were as follows: The emperor surrendered to the pope the right of investing with the ring and crozier; he also surendered the right to appoint bishops and abbots; on the other hand the pope conceded that the bishops and abbots should be ca-

nonically elected in presence of the emperor or of his representative, that contested elections were to be decided by the emperor, and that the investiture of new prelates with their civil and judicial functions should rest with the emperor.

The compromise ended satisfactorily the question of investiture. The double and misleading significance of the same symbols were removed. The Church was to confer the ring and staff as her symbols, while the State was to receive the oath of homage and fidelity as her symbols.

137. **The Broad Question Between Church and State.**— The concordat of Worms, however, only settled one of the many difficulties between Church and State. In fact, the investiture contest is only a minor issue of the great broad question that is ever present — is the Church in the State or is the State in the Church. All along the frontiers of both Church and State are constant fierce recriminations and at the bottom of all disputes lies the unhappy ignorance of what really pertains to God and what really pertains to Cæsar. The contest between the empire and papacy was soon to break out more fiercely than ever, though fought out on other grounds.

138. **William I of England.**— During the contest between the Salian emperors and the popes, England was conquered by the Normans. Duke William of Normandy laid claim to the English crown, alleging that he had been promised the succession by King Edward. He crossed over into England with a powerful army and at the battle of Hastings in Sussex defeated the Saxon forces, while Harold himself was slain. Duke William then marched on London and presented himself for election. There he was welcomed with loud acclamations from his new subjects and the crown was placed on his head by Archbishop Ealdred (1066).

139. **His Political Organization.**— William's military valor and rapid movements soon brought the entire kingdom into subjection, and he soon organized his new conquest with masterly skill. The English soil was parcelled out among his followers on condition of their performing the usual feudal service. He thus formally established in England the feudal system that in the Anglo-Saxon times had already existed in the war companions, or "thegns," of the king, and in the folk lands that had been granted out as a reward for military service. But the feudalism which William introduced was very different from that on the continent. He would not allow the under-tenants to hold their lands on the condition of fealty and allegiance to their immediate lord only, but insisted that all the tenants should take an oath of homage and allegiance directly to him. He thus managed to keep within modest bounds the power of the greater barons, who on the continent tended to develop into independent sovereigns.

In order to make his authority still more secure he revived the old English courts of justice. The political administration was taken out of the hands of the feudal barons, while the supreme jurisdiction of the King's Court upheld the king's claim to be the sole fountain of justice.

Even the Church was made dependent upon the crown. Many of the old Saxon bishops had become worldly-minded and William filled their places with Norman prelates, many of them eminent for their piety and zeal. The only Anglo-Saxon bishop allowed to remain was St. Wulstan of Worcester.

140. **Church Organization.**— The fact that the new Norman prelates were foreigners, unacquainted with the dialect of the country, made them very dependent upon the king and subservient to his policy. Moreover, lest their jurisdiction should tend to exceed convenient limits, William effected a complete

separation between the civil and ecclesiastical courts. From henceforth all ecclesiastical cases were to be tried in purely eccleciastical courts, and the bishops were no longer to sit by the side of the lay judges in civil courts of justice.

Under William's successors, William II and Henry I the king's power became less absolute. The revolt of Robert, Duke of Normandy, and of many other of the barons, as well as the firm attitude of Archbishop Anselm, considerably limited the power of William II. The same causes were also at work during the reign of Henry I and he, by his own deliberate actions, hastened the advance of a constitutional government. His marriage with the Saxon princess Matilda tended to blend the Saxon with the conquering Norman element, and his charters of freedom to some of the great English towns gave to the townsmen the rights of electing their own magistrates, administering justice by their own law officers, and managing trade concerns through their own guilds or commercial corporations.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Reign of Conrad II — His acquisition of the kingdom of Arles — The importance of this acquisition — Conrad II makes the estates of the lesser nobles hereditary — Reign of Henry III — Synod of Sutri in which Clement II is made Pope — Pontificate of Leo IX and his alliance with the Normans — The Pope's authority strengthened by the papal legates — Pontificate of Nicholas II — The election of Popes now entrusted to the cardinals — Origin, functions and position of the cardinals — Beginning of strife between the empire and the papacy — General causes of misunderstanding between Church and state — Meaning of the investiture contest — Gregory VII becomes Pope and the struggle begins — The Pope's position is the stronger — Henry IV goes to Canossa — Death of Gregory VIII in exile — Urban II holds councils at Piacenza and at Clermont — Revival of the struggle between Henry V and Pascal II — Compromise between these two — Final settlement of the question by the Concordat of Worms between Henry V and Calixtus II — Conquest of England by Duke William of Normandy — Differ-

ence between the feudalism introduced by William and that on the continent — William keeps up the old courts of justice — Changes made in the Church in England — Importance of the reign of Henry I.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

Tout, *Empire and Papacy;* Henderson, *History of Germany;* Lea, *Sacerdotal celibacy in the Christian church;* Alzog, *Church History;* Emerton, *Medieval Europe;* Dante, *de Monachia;* Henderson, *Select Documents;* Vincent, *Age of Hildebrand;* Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire;* Bowden, *Life and Pontificate of Gregory VII;* Creasy, *Decisive Battles of the World;* Freeman, *Norman Conquest;* Macy, *English Constitution;* Gardiner, *Student's History of England;* Taswell-Langmead, *English Constitutional History, p. 45 to 61;* Stubbs, *Select Charters, pages 79, 80 and 85.*

CHAPTER XI

CONTINUATION OF THE CONTEST BETWEEN THE EMPIRE AND PAPACY

141. **The Papal Position Strengthened.**— The Concordat of Worms was far from settling finally the long quarrel between Church and State. It had not yet solved the great question whether the emperor or the pope was the chief ruler in the Holy Roman Empire.

The course of events, however, had made the position of the pope relatively much the stronger. Besides the help of the Countess Matilda and of the Normans in Italy, he had also had at his command the widespread influence of the religious orders throughout Christendom. For while ecclesiastics tended to become worldly and thus weaken the Church's influence, new religious orders were arising that tended to make the Church the champion of learning and upright living throughout the world. Some of these new institutions followed the old lines of the Cluniac movement, only they insisted on greater penance, and more prayer and recollection. Others again while not withdrawing the clerk altogether from contact with the world strove to surround him with some of the safeguards of the religious life.

142. **The Cistercians.**— Amongst the orders that followed the lives of the old Cluniac movement the most important were the Cistercians and Carthusians.

The order of the Cistercians was founded by Robert of Molême. He, with a few faithful followers, settled down at Citeaux near Dijon. There they were soon joined by St. Bernard of Foutaines. The extraordinary sanctity of this

man soon attracted numerous followers. Want of space soon compelled them to found some new homes elsewhere, and in 1115 St. Bernard at the head of a numerous band of followers, moved to Clairvaux, leaving behind at Citeaux as abbot the Englishman, St. Stephen Harding.

The leading features of the Cistercian order are the rigorous practice of the rules of the Cluniac foundation. Their poverty was such that even their very churches, the vestments and adornments had to be as simple as possible. Towers and belfries were prohibited. In fact, at the present day wherever exists the remains of a Cistercian church with a belfry, the probability is that the church was built in later times, when the order was decadent. Their discipline and penances were of the severest nature and their obedience extended to the minutest detail. What time remained from prayer was chiefly spent in manual labor. The country that was occupied by the Cistercians thus soon became opened up in a remarkably short space of time; marshes were drained and converted into fields and rich pastures. Soon the Cistercian order became noted for its agricultural wealth, and the "Cistercian wool" afterwards became an important feature of England's commerce with Flanders.

Saint Bernard.

143. **The Carthusians.**— Another order founded on very much the same lines was that of the Carthusians, founded by St. Bruno. In the still famous monastery of the Grande Chartreuse in Dauphiny he gathered round him his early enthusiastic disciples. The discipline and severe penances remind one of those of the Cistercians, but a peculiar feature was the blending together of the eremetic and cenobitic ideals. The Cistercians led a community life, but the Carthusians lived in individual privacy. Each member had his own little cell where he worked, prayed, slept, and dined apart from his brethren. Owing to this arrangement, the buildings of the Carthusian order are generally of immense size, and are threaded with long cloisters.

Both the Cistercians and Carthusians differed in one remarkable respect from the old Cluniac foundations. Their daughter houses were allowed a certain control over the parent house. General chapters of the whole order were held and these had jurisdiction to correct any abuses that might exist in the parent house. Thus not only did the government of the order become more democratic but a greater safeguard was instituted against the introduction of relaxation.

144. **The Canons.**— We must now consider some of the religious institutions of another kind. It came to be recognized that instead of finding one's salvation by entire separation from the world and its dangers the same end might be as readily accomplished by remaining in the world and working for the temporal or spiritual welfare of one's neighbor. With this view were founded about the ninth century numerous congregations of regular canons. Not that the cononical life was any new idea. St. Augustine of Hippo had already established a little community of priests in his own household, and bishop Chrodegang of Metz had introduced the same custom into his diocese. Not, however, till the time of St.

Norbert of Prémontré in 1120 did the movement assume a wide importance. He became the founder of the Austin canons who almost rivaled the Cistercians in popularity. The canons, like ordinary clerics, preached, heard confessions, and went through the ordinary routine of parochial work. At the same time by means of their community life and their obedience to a superior they managed to keep up the spirit of recollection and the practice of the interior virtues.

All these different orders gave great help and strength to the Church. Moreover, the popes that now reigned were men of ability and determination and eminently fitted for the closing scenes of the great struggle between themselves and the empire.

145. **Frederick Barbarossa.**— The death of Henry V in 1125 ended the Franconian dynasty, and with the interval of a single reign a new dynasty was placed on the German throne in the person of Frederick I, surnamed Barbarossa or Redbeard. The Hohenstaufen dynasty became remarkable for its strong emperors. Frederick was perhaps the ablest and most famous of them all. In personal appearance he was tall and majestic, while his powers of statecraft and his extraordinary dexterity in using favorable opportunities placed him in a more commanding position in the two countries of Italy and Germany than had been the case with any of his predecessors. He abandoned a purely local German policy and determined to assert himself in Italy. He quickly consulted the eminent jurists of the time, chiefly from Bologna, in order to find out the full extent of his rights. His rights, or regalia, as they were also called, were declared to be the suzerainty over certain cities and lands, the power to appoint magistrates, to collect tolls, to coin money, to impose an extraordinary war tax, and to enjoy all the proceeds from fisheries, and from salt and silver mines. The emperor's power was

also extended to such towns as could not produce formal proof of independence.

146. **Rise of Italian Towns.**— It was this last clause that brought about strife between the emperor and his Italian subjects. The towns had now begun to assume an important place in medieval history. They had become centers of commerce and industry, and had begun to rival the monasteries as homes of culture and refinement. At first, the cities had been mainly under the control of the bishops. But later the citizens had aspired to some share in the government. Often by brute force, sometimes by judicious diplomacy many of the cities succeeded in removing their government from episcopal into municipal control. Naturally, the richest and most influential citizens got into office and this often caused internal strife, but all would unite against any invasion of their common privileges.

147. **War Between Frederick and the Towns.**— Frederick's assertion of the regalia over many of the Italian towns at once set Italy aflame. Both sides found partisans in the struggle. The nobles some years previously would have stood against the emperor, but now they rallied round him against the towns who had also rebelled against their jurisdiction. The pope and the clerical party, on the other hand, sided with the towns against the emperor. Thus it happened that most of the towns were Guelf and most of the nobles were Ghibelline, though there were exceptions. The family of the Orsini, for example, was Guelfic, and Pavia was Ghibelline.

Milan was foremost in resisting the emperor's claims. It absolutely refused to receive the podesta who was the supreme magistrate, generally foreign, appointed by the emperor. Other cities soon followed the example. Frederick turned all his forces against the city of Milan. After three year's siege

it was taken and destroyed. One interesting episode of the siege was the removal of the relics of the Three Kings of the East from Milan to the Cathedral at Cologne, where they still remain.

148. **The Lombard League.**— After this the cities at once formed a league for greater defense, called the Lombard League (1168). Its energy and spirit of co-operative enterprise are still visible in the town of Alessandria, which they

The City of Milan.

named after Alexander III, the pope who so zealously espoused their cause. In 1176 was fought the decisive battle of Legnano which produced more tangible results than most battles of the middle ages. The emperor was completely beaten, and after a temporary truce made at Venice the treaty of Constance was signed. By the terms of this treaty the emperor was forced to recognize Alexander III as pope and practically to give back to the towns their old rights of municipal self-government.

Besides these immediate results, the pope was placed in a still more influential position, and the middle class of Italy had made an important step in asserting the position in European politics.

149. **Success of Frederick in Germany.**— Frederick's defeat, however, did not mean complete failure. In Italy he had only failed to gain something new, and now in Germany he succeeded in humbling his rival the Guelfic Duke of Bavaria, Henry the Lion. A chance quarrel between the duke and the Bishop of Halberstadt was Frederick's opportunity. He interfered in the quarrel, and after crushing his old rival, dismembered his dominions. Its Alpine districts were taken away and set up into the new duchy of Styria, while the rest of Bavaria was given to Otto of Wittelsbach, one of Frederick's followers. Henry himself received by way of compensation a small tract of land round Brunswick, which afterwards became the Duchy of Brunswick.

Barbarossa also secured a great diplomatic triumph by marrying his son Henry to Constance, heiress to the Norman kingdom of Sicily. The pope was thus likely to find himself menaced with the power of the Hohenstaufens both on the north and on the south.

150. **Henry VI.**— In 1190 Barbarossa died and his son Henry VI succeeded, who, in spite of his ability, again demonstrated the utter incompatibility of a united German and Italian policy. His Sicilian subjects, headed by Count Tancred, revolted against their would-be German sovereign. After a long and bitter struggle Henry VI succeeded in enforcing his claim, but even then his German subjects would never consent to recognize any permanent union between Germany and Italy.

Upon the death of Henry VI (1197) the long and bitter

contest between the empire and papacy reached its crisis. The strongest of the popes and the strongest of the emperors now enter the lists and displayed the full force of their power. The pope was Innocent III and the Emperor was Frederick II, as yet a minor of only three years of age.

151. **Innocent III** ascended the throne at the age of thirty-seven in all the vigor of manhood, endowed by nature with all the talents of a ruler and possessed of uncommon erudition. He was also a man of lofty aims and able to interest himself in the remotest concerns of Christendom. His political sagacity was extraordinary, and yet he was also a spiritual man and seems to have had at heart the genuine welfare of the Church. Under him, the political influence of the papacy achieved the summit of its greatness. Innocent made and unmade an emperor of Germany, successfully rebuked the king of France for adultery, so completely humbled John, King of England, that he resigned his crown and received it back again as a fief from the pope. No kingdom seemed too remote for his activity. He reduced the kings of Portugal and Aragon to a state of vassalage, and finally even interfered with the government of the new Slavonic kingdoms.

152. **Innocent's relations with the Empire** show very clearly the enormous influence which he must have had in Europe. At the entreaty of Constance he had consented to act as guardian to the infant son of Henry II, promising to uphold his authority in Sicily. And well did the pope fulfill his promise. He not only successfully put down the turbulent barons, but also organized a successful government throughout the entire province.

153. **Innocent's Spiritual Activity.**— His spiritual activity was almost as many-sided as his political activity. It was he that patronized the new orders of the Friars that now came

into existence, and it was he again that held the celebrated IV Lateran Council. The importance of this council is seen from the decrees that it passed. The heresy of the Albigenses in the south of France was condemned; the whole life and discipline of the Church was brought up to a higher plane, paschal communion and confession was made obligatory, bishops were commanded to set up free schools, to teach poor scholars grammar and theology; and what had an important influence on the judicial system in England, the old fashioned trial by battle and by ordeal were condemned.[1]

At first Innocent was determined not to allow the kingdoms of Germany and Southern Italy to become united under one head, for he would be thus exposing himself to the power of the Hohenstaufen house both on the north and on the south.

The German barons were of the same mind, though for different reasons. But in Germany itself there were two rival claimants, Philip of Suabia, a Ghibelline, and Otto of Brunswick, belonging to the Guelfic faction. An appeal was made to the pope, who naturally decided in favor of Otto of Brunswick, the leader of the Guelfic party (1209).

154. **Innocent Interferes in German Affairs.**— But Otto in power soon showed himself very different from Otto in a state of dependency. Not content with his German possessions, he strove to drive out Frederick II from Sicily and secure that kingdom for himself. Instantly both France and the pope tried to dethrone the ambitious Otto. Germany was roused by French and papal emissaries into such a state of disaffection that it deposed Otto, and the pope, in order to

[1] The trial by combat consisted in deciding the guilt or innocence of a person on the merits of a doubtful case by an appeal to arms. Trial by ordeal consisted in establishing the guilt or innocence of a person by such processes as walking on red-hot coals with impunity, or swallowing a morsel without choking.

avoid the immediate dangers that threatened the Holy See, accepted Frederick II as emperor in Germany, only stipulating that Germany and Sicily should not be indissolubly united.[1]

Innocent III died (1216) and with his death we enter upon the last phase in the great contest between the empire and the papacy.

155. **Frederick II.**— The death of Innocent left Frederick II the strongest man not only in Germany but also in Christendom. Perhaps no emperor had ever held a stronger position than did Frederick during the few years after Innocent's death. It even seemed likely that the imperial dream of a united Italy and Germany might be realized. Both Germany and South Italy were in the emperor's actual possession. The only barrier was the papal states that lay in between, and this barrier showed even more how impossible it was to reconcile the interests of Church and papacy.

156. **Character of Frederick.**— Frederick was the man, if any to bring about the desired result. Though his personal appearance was stunted and insignificant and his baldness and short-sightedness hardly accorded with his claims to imperial dignity, yet he was the first emperor who seemed to have stepped beyond the boundaries of his age. It is curious to note that his views regarding personal cleanliness seem to have shocked some of the conservative clerics of the time who complained that he took baths on Sunday. In religious matters he was the first to practice toleration, permitting all religions in the kingdom of Sicily, though this policy shows a striking contrast to his policy in Germany.

157. **His erudition** was liberal and little short of marvelous. He spoke Latin, French, Italian, German, Greek, and

[1] The issue was decided at the battle of Bouvines (1214), when the papal forces helped by France crushed the united arms of Otto and King John of England.

Arabic. His court was the center of culture and refinement and to it flocked learned scholars from many parts of Christendom, among whom were Michael Scott who translated many of Aristotle's works, and also Leonard of Pisa who introduced Arabic numerals from the East. He himself was an author and was hailed by Dante as the "Father of Italian poetry." He was the first sovereign to found a royal university, which he did at Naples, and he also founded a medical school at Salerno. His taste for geology also led him to establish a geological garden for didactic purposes. Nor was he merely an antiquarian or a man of abstract erudition. There are few men in history who have showed such masterly powers of organization. By his own unaided genius, he built up in Sicily an administrative system that rivaled the best elements of English government and jurisprudence.

Such was the emperor who was destined to fight out the last act of a long and bitter struggle.

158. **Strife With Honorius III.**— When Frederick had been made emperor by Innocent III he had promised two things, first, to disassociate himself from the Italian kingdom over which he was to make his young son Henry ruler, second, to embark on a crusade against the infidel. It was the nonfulfilment of this promise that caused the first friction between himself and the papcy. Honorius III succeeded Innocent III. Honorius had been an ardent supporter of the emperor, but Frederick when congratulated on the succession of such a pope remarked: "I have only lost a friend, no pope can be a Ghibelline."

159. **Crusade of Frederick II.**— Honorius III urged Frederick to undertake the crusade and the better to secure this did not press immediately the question of the Sicilian kingdom. But Frederick still refrained from the crusade and he

still called himself king of Sicily. At last Honorius excommunicated him and prepared to renew the hostile league between himself and the Italian cities — a league that had already been so disastrous to Barbarossa. In 1127, Honorius III died and Gregory IX succeeded. He was already an old man, but of strong will and imperious energy. Frederick sailed from Brindisi for the crusade but returned in three days with a plea of sickness. It is probable that the excuse was real, for Frederick now had an interest in the crusade. He had married Isabella of Brienne and thought he had some claim to the kingdom of Jerusalem. But the pope soon placed him under the ban and foiled his departure till the ban was removed. However, Frederick on his recovery ignored the ban, sailed for the Holy Land and by skilled diplomacy achieved a most signal triumph, procuring for the Christians the Holy Land of Jerusalem, Nazareth, and Bethlehem. Frederick, however, did not forget his own interests, for he had himself crowned king of Jerusalem.

On Frederick's return he found that during his absence, the pope had been stirring up Germany against him. But Frederick's speedy return quelled the uprising and the pope, taken by surprise, was only too glad to make with Frederick the treaty of San Germano in 1230.

160. **Frederick's Activity in Sicily.**— Frederick was then free to turn his attention to Sicily, over which he had not relinquished his regal title. Perhaps in no sphere of activity did Frederick so well display the modern element of his genius as in the "Constitutions of the Kingdom of Sicily." He entirely swept away the old feudal system. For the petty jurisdiction of the barons, he substituted his own kingly authority, instead of the feudal dues was introduced a system of direct taxation, while the petty judicial functions of the barons were replaced by a system that closely resembled the

judicial system of England in one stage of its development. Even the representative system was introduced, each estate of the realm being represented by its own general court.

161. **Frederick's Failure in Germany.**— But Frederick's triumph in Italy meant the downfall of his prospects in Germany. While he succeeded in establishing his monarchy in Sicily the cause of local independence asserted itself in Germany. In fact, a number of causes, individually powerless but collectively overwhelming, were fast bringing about the downfall of the once powerful house of Hohenstaufen. The enmity of the popes, the adverse activity of the friars, the turbulence of the barons at home and the onward progress of the city states of northern Italy proved irresistible. The emperor struggled on to the last but his aged frame was no longer able to stand the storm and he died in 1250.

162. **Results of Frederick's Failure.**— The death of Frederick not only closes the greatness of the Holy Roman Empire, but was accompanied with momentous results for future European politics.

1. The chance of forming a united Germany was deferred indefinitely. For the only animating principle that was likely to bring and to keep together its component parts was now removed. From now the map of Germany presents a confused medley of petty kingdoms, duchies, principalities, and bishoprics, each leading a separate independent life.

2. The same condition also obtained in Italy. The history of Italy now becomes the history of independent city states. Even at the present day visitors cannot but notice how each Italian town seems to have a distinct type of its own — so different from many of our American cities of which you may with truth say that if you have seen one you have seen all. Even the inhabitants, of the towns seem to have an

individuality and a distinct type and tradition of their own. And all this is accounted for by the past history of Italy — the failure of the emperors to assert their unifying influence in Italian politics.

3. There was one section of society that seemed to have come out of the contest with success. That was the middle class. Both in Germany and Italy the middle class assumed an important position in politics and with them rested in a great measure the shaping of the destinies of Western Europe.

163. **English History of the Period.**— In 1154 while Frederick Barbarossa was reigning in Germany, a new dynasty of kings was established in England by the accession of Henry II of the house of Anjou. Henry II had much of the ability and many of the organizing powers of the German emperors, but unlike them he had not to cope with such overwhelming difficulties. The reign of Henry II marks the fullest extent of English possessions in France. From his parents he inherited Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and by his marriage with Elinor of Aquitaine he inherited the provinces of southwest France. Indeed the whole of the western half of France belonged to England. Henry II also asserted his claim to the possession of Ireland, and in 1185 an English settlement was definitely established in the eastern part of Ireland, a district that was henceforth known as the English pale.

164. **Henry II and the Church.**— The chief features of Henry's reign are his relations with the Church and his perfection of the political system. The separation of the Church from the lay courts had been provocative of great abuses; a cleric when committing a crime could not be punished straightway, but had to be degraded and only after a second crime could any punishment be inflicted. By the constitu-

The murder of St. Thomas à Becket in Canterbury Cathedral.

tions of Clarendon all this was done away with and clerics were made amenable to the civil courts of the realm, it being enacted that they should be under the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical or of the lay court according to the quality of the offense that they had committed. St. Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, strongly opposed this, and the result was a serious quarrel between himself and the king, in the course of which he was murdered in his own cathedral by four knights who thereby thought to do the king a service.

165. **Henry's Temporal Administration.**— The best part of Henry's administration was his judicial work. The assizes of Clarendon and of Northampton provided for the defence of the people from thieves and murderers. Towns and boroughs were made responsible for the prevention of crime; while in the repression of crime, the jury system was for the first time practically and definitely introduced. But in Henry's time the jurors, unlike our modern jurors were supposed to be acquainted with the facts of the case and character of the accused person, while the jurors also acted as judges. It is from the jurors in the latter capacity that we have our grand jury who still indict criminals for crime. In the thirteenth century, after the prisoner had been judged guilty by the jury, he was forced to undergo a further trial by ordeal, which we have already explained. Then when the Fourth Lateran Council abolished the trial by ordeal, another jury was established instead called petty jury and it is this that gave rise to our ordinary jury.

Henry II also improved in other ways the administration of justice. He divided the kingdom into six districts and the king's justices visited these at stated times. At first their main duties were financial, but later on these duties were entrusted to other officials, and the judges became what they are to-day.

King John signing the Great Charter.

166. **Richard and John.**— Henry II was succeeded by his two sons, Richard I (1189) and John (1199). Both of them for different reasons were bad kings. Richard was exclusively preoccupied with his crusading expeditions and with his French possessions, for which purpose he laid heavy burdens on the people, while John tried to make himself a despot. The expenses of the kingdom were undoubtedly heavy, but John tried to meet them by imposing direct taxes as well as by raising the ordinary feudal revenues. In addition to this the subject was often unjustly deprived of his life and liberty.

167. **The Great Charter.**— The barons headed the opposition to the king. Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, like Lanfranc and Anselm, also stood forth as the champion of the popular liberties. The result was the signing of the Great Charter, the first bulwark of English liberties. This document is important as being the first written law to show forth the fundamental elements of the English Constitution. From henceforth none were to be "seized, or imprisoned or dispossessed or outlawed or in any way brought to ruin, except by lawful judgment of their peers or by the law of the land." Every man was to be entitled to justice without delay, and above all, outside the then customary feudal aids no tax was to be imposed save by the consent of the common council of the realm. This last clause gave to the people the legal power of the purse and was the chief weapon in their constitutional war against future despotic kings.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Foundation of new orders — Origin of the Cistercians — The spirit and rule of the Cistercians — Influence of the Cistercians — Origin of the Carthusians — Peculiar features of the Carthusian order — Congregations of regular canons — Union of monastic spirit with the active life — Rise of the new Hohenstauffen dynasty in Germany — Character and policy of Frederick I — Growing power of the Italian towns — Strife between Frederick

I and the Italian towns — The Guelphs and Ghibellines — Destruction of Milan — The Lombard League — Battle of Legnano and Treaty of Constance — Frederick's policy in Germany — Marriage of Prince Henry with Constance — Reign of Henry VI — Pontificate of Innocent III — His character — His spiritual activity — The IV Lateran Council — His political activity all over Europe — Frederick II becomes emperor — His appearance and character — His different policy in Germany and in Italy — Struggle between Frederick II and Pope Honorius III and Pope Gregory IX — Frederick's crusade — Political changes made by Frederick in Sicily — Frederick's failure in Germany — General results of the activity of the emperors — Reign of Henry II in England — Extent of English possessions in France — Conquest of Ireland — Henry's intervention in Church matters and his quarrel with St. Thomas à Becket — Assizes of Clarendon and Northampton — Origin of the Grand Jury and the Petty Jury — Henry's legal arrangements — Reigns of Richard I and of John — Signing of the Magna Charta.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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CHAPTER XII

IMPORTANT MOVEMENTS OF THE MIDDLE AGES

The Crusades

168. **Strife of East and West.**— Even during the ancient history of Greece and Rome there had been some contact between the eastern and western civilizations. The wars between Persia and Greece marked the attempt of the eastern type of civilization to encroach upon the West and even in the later history of Rome we find the continuation of this conflict in which each of the contending parties seemed unable to overthrow and absorb the other. During the middle ages there was also a contest between the East and West, but a contest of a different character.

169. **Religion Cause of Dispute.**— The immediate cause of dispute was now no longer political but religious. We have already seen that the Saracens had possessed themselves of Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and the other Holy Places sanctified by our Lord's earthly presence. On the occasion when Omar took possession of Jerusalem he made a treaty with the Christians, the terms of which were so humiliating to the conquered that chronic discontent was sure to be the result. The treaty provided that the Christians were to build no new churches and were to allow the Turks to enter the old ones; no cross was to appear on the outside of the buildings, and church bells were only to toll. The pilgrims who frequented the holy places were subjected to great humiliations and annoyances.

170. **Political Causes.**— To these grounds of religious complaint, might be added others of a political nature. The

ROUTES OF THE
CRUSADERS
First Crusade
Second Crusade
Third Crusade
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude East from Greenwich
10°
20°
30°
40°
50°
30°
40°
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
POLAND
KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA
KIEV
HUNGARY
K. OF ARLES
PROVENCE
K. OF NAVARRE
ITALY
CORSICA
SARDINIA
K. OF SICILY
SERVIA
DALMATIA
BULGARIANS
EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE
SELJUKS OF RUM
LESSER ARMENIA
K. OF CYPRUS
RHODES
CRETE (CANDIA)
CEPHALONIA
CORFU
GOTHIA
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SEA
DOMINIONS OF SALADIN
DON. OF SIHAH ARMEN
Richard I 1190
Philip II 1190
Richard I 1191
Philip II 1191
Richard I 1192
Constantinople
Jerusalem
Cairo
Alexandria
Damietta
Ascalon
Jaffa
Acre
Tripoli
Antioch
Aleppo
Damascus
Tiberias
Nazareth
Caesarea
Iconium
Smyrna
Ephesus
Adalia
Seleucia
Myra
Nicosia
Amagusta
Limasol
Gaudia
Tunis
Bona
Kairwan
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
Naples
Rome
Florence
Pisa
Genoa
Milan
Venice
Verona
Trent
Aquileia
Trieste
Ragusa
Spalato
Durazzo
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Gallipoli
Abydos
Nicomedia
Sinope
Amisus
Trebizond
Kherson
Tcherniguf
Kief
Vladimir
Lublin
Cracow
Sandomierz
Breslau
Prague
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Vienna
Presburg
Buda
Gran
Odenburg
Gyula
Hermannstadt
Belgrade
Sirmium
Ursova
Widdin
Silistria
Varna
Tirnuva
Sardica
Nisibis
Amasia
Angora
Halys
Erzerum
Khelat
L. Van
Tigris
Euphrates
Edessa
Meltene
Cesarea
Bergama
Patria
Corinth
Argos
Larissa
Joulba
Barletta
Bari
Otranto
Salerno
Capua
Aquila
Civita
Ancona
Ravenna
Florence
Pisa
Lucca
Genoa
Nice
Marseilles
Arles
Geneva
Lyons
Chur
Basel
Besançon
Metz
Spires
Strasburg
Clairvaux
Verdun
Rheims
Soissons
Amiens
Calais
Boulogne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Cologne
Liege
Namur
Treves
Mayence
Worms
Wurzburg
Ulmutz
Olmutz
Brunn
Znaym
Iglau
Pressburg
Hallicz
Lemberg
Cracow
Thorn
Dantzic
Elbing
Konigsberg
Memel
Riga
Pskof
Smolensk
Moscow
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Astrakhan
Volga
Don
Dnieper
Dniester
Bug
Pruth
Danube
Save
Drave
Theiss
Polovtzians
Khazars
Alans
Cumans
Bulgarians
Russians
Poles
Hungarians
Germans
Saxons
Normans
Franks
Flemings
Lombards
Burgundians
Provençals
Navarrese
Castilians
Aragonese
Catalans
Moors
Berbers
Arabs
Turks
Greeks
Armenians
Georgians
Kurds
Persians
Mongols
Tartars
Circassians
Abyssinians
Nubians
Egyptians
Ethiopians
Libyans
Numidians
Carthaginians
Romans
Gauls
Britons
Scots
Irish
Welsh
Danes
Swedes
Norwegians
Finns
Lapps
Russians
Poles
Hungarians
Germans
Saxons
Normans
Franks
Flemings
Lombards
Burgundians
Provençals
Navarrese
Castilians
Aragonese
Catalans
Moors
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Armenians
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Kurds
Persians
Mongols
Tartars
Circassians
Abyssinians
Nubians
Egyptians
Ethiopians
Libyans
Numidians
Carthaginians
Romans
Gauls
Britons
Scots
Irish
Welsh
Danes
Swedes
Norwegians
Finns
Lapps

Turk's political creed was one of aggression and expansion, and Constantinople being the outpost of Christendom was placed in very great danger. During the pontificate of Urban II the emperor made earnest solicitations to the Pope, for assistance, and even the orthodox Christians of Europe were beginning to see that the interests of the heretic Greek were practically identical with their own.

171. **Other Causes of the Crusades.**— While the danger that threatened Europe and the Church was very real, there were also certain internal conditions that made the great bulk of the people respond heartily to any invitation to go out and fight the East. The two chief professions at that time were those of the monk and of the soldier. Those who were not monks were more or less soldiers, and were filled with the fighting spirit of adventure. Moreover, the war against the heathen must have seemed to many a good chance of escaping from those monotonous caste distinctions of medieval society, whereby each individual had to walk exactly in the profession of his father and to pursue the occupations of that particular section of society in which he happened to have been born. The crusades, in other words, not only appealed to the love of adventure but they also held out a new hope of bettering one's condition and of raising oneself to wealth and distinction. Each man had some prospect of escaping from that deep rut in which his life would have otherwise have been spent.

172. **The Period of the Crusades.**— Men were therefore eager to fight the heathen, and during the middle ages, from the eleventh to the thirteenth century, there was constant warfare going on between the Christian and the Turk. The nine crusades that are recorded were only emphatic stages of this conflict, when greater numbers than usual went out to

the East, and certain important definite results were accomplished.

173. **The First Crusade** took place during the reign of Urban II. Nothing shows more clearly the growing influence of the papacy than the fact that during the fierce investiture contest with Henry IV, the pope was able to promulgate throughout Christendom the first great crusade. Pope Urban II first of all held a council at Piacenza, at which there arrived messengers from the Greek emperor imploring aid. He then held a second council at Clermont in France before a great concourse of enthusiastic people, and on this occasion Urban proclaimed the crusade. The appeal was not in vain. Thousands there and then took up the cause and donned the red cross, the sign of their agreement, and in a short time, owing to the eloquence of Peter the Hermit, the movement spread throughout all France.

174. **Character of the First Crusade.**— During the first crusade, however, the great sovereigns of Europe took no part. The real leaders of the expedition were the four great feudal nobles of the second rank. Chief among these was Godfrey de Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine, who spoke fluently both the French and Teutonic dialects, and who, on account of his unsullied character, the unselfish character of his motives, and his political sagacity was looked up to as the chief leader of the expedition. Next in social influence, since he was the brother of the king of France, came Hugh, Count of Vermandois, who had endeared himself to many by his genial temperament. Robert, Count of Normandy, was conspicuous for his bravery and was hardly surpassed in this respect even by Tancred, his companion in arms, the hero of Tasso's poem, "Jerusalem Delivered." The orator and chairman of the meetings of the war council was Stephen, Count of Blois, a man of eloquence and practical sagacity.

These were the chief leaders, and under them were a host of lesser knights.

Upon their departure for the Holy Land the crusaders had to undergo certain rites and ceremonies, all calculated to purify the conscience and to rouse the loftiest ideals. The knight before his departure had to settle the affairs of his soul, to renew his baptismal vows, to swear to champion the innocent and oppressed; he also commended himself to our Lady, who in the chivalric language of that period became to him "Notre Dame."

175. **The Beginnings of the First Crusade** were not successful. The vanguard of the army consisted of an unorganized multitude of men, women, and children under Peter the Hermit. The wanton aggressions and disorders of the crowd drew upon them the hostility of the king of Hungary, through whose dominions they had to pass, and even when after many sufferings and delays they reached the Holy Land, they were completely cut to pieces by the Saracens.

176. **The Main Body** of the army met with better success. After pursuing different routes, the leaders with the several forces arrived at Constantinople. Alexius, the emperor, began to repent of his invitation, for he soon saw that the crusaders might deem the conquest of an heretical prince like himself a useful preliminary to the real object they had at hand. In fact the enormous numbers of the crusaders and the uncertain character of their motives were quite calculated to fill him with alarm and suspicions. But his diplomacy was equal to the occasion. He dexterously maneuvered the passage of the crusaders across the Bosphorus in such a way that they were not all together on one side, but so that some would be on the eastern bank and others on the western. He even persuaded their leaders to take an oath to deliver to him as supreme over-lord all the territory that they might conquer.

177. **Foundation of European Principalities in Eastern Lands.**— When the crusaders arrived at the Holy Land a series of great battles was fought. Nicæa was taken in 1097, and through a secret compromise between the Greek emperor and the Saracens, was delivered into the emperor's hands, much to the vexation of the Latins. Then Antioch was taken in spite of its impregnable position on Lake Ascalon, and this fell into the hands of Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard. Of all the leaders of the crusaders Bohemond seems from the very first to have been the least disinterested. On the way to Jerusalem another leader of the crusaders also managed to secure personal possession of part of the spoils. This was Baldwin, Count of Flanders, who took possession of and founded the principality of Edessa. Raymond of Toulouse, who had also hoped to get Edessa, compensated himself with the principality of Tripoli on the coast.

178. **Capture of Jerusalem.**— At length the crusading army arrived at Jerusalem. The difficulties of taking it were great, owing to the scarcity of food and water in the surrounding district, and the want of the necessary besieging materials. But in two months' time the town fell, mainly owing to the timely arrival at Jaffa of vessels with supplies from Genoa.

179. **The Kingdom of Jerusalem.**— The crusaders organized their conquest into what was called the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. The constitution which they formed is interesting as affording the purest type of feudal government that had ever existed. Feudalism elsewhere had to contend against certain extraneous elements, but here the crusaders were enabled to reproduce their feudal institutions on perfectly fresh ground.

180. **Constitution of the New Kingdom.**— Godfrey, who had been elected king of Jerusalem by the successful army, was

supreme over-lord. Under him were the greater feudatories of Syria, Tripoli, Edessa, and Antioch, and under these again were the lesser fiefs. Justice was administered in three different courts: first, in the high court of the barons presided over by the king himself; second, in the court of the burgesses, which met the needs of the popular element, and

The capture of Jerusalem by the Crusaders.

third, in the Syrian court intended for the use of the native Christians.

The foundation of the Latin kingdom, however, did not meet with much solid success. The old quarrel between the Turks and Arabs, which had partly accounted for the success of the first crusade, had been healed. Soon Edessa was taken and the whole Latin East was threatened.

181. **A Second Crusade** in 1147 was then preached, this time by St. Bernard. Two large armies were equipped and commanded respectively by Conrad III of Germany and Louis VII of France. Conrad III, who went on ahead, met with a crushing defeat, and had to retreat to Antioch, where Louis VII had just arrived with a French army. The two kings made a fatal mistake which at once compromised the success of the crusade. They attacked Damascus, whose ruler was inclined to be neutral in the contest, and this at once had the effect of making him throw in his cause with the other Saracens. Conrad soon thought it advisable to return to Germany, and Louis followed him in a year's time without anything substantial being accomplished.

182. **The Third Crusade,** in 1187, differed from the two preceding ones in that it was not originated by the Church, but by the State. Philip Augustus, king of France, Richard, King of England, and Frederick Barbarossa, emperor of Germany, were the chief leaders of the movement. Frederick Barbarossa was the first to start and after successfully evading the treachery of Isaac Angelus, then emperor at Constantinople, successfully reached Cilicia. There the old emperor, through imprudently bathing in a rapid river, lost his life, and the German army without a leader was soon dissolved. The kings of France and England went to the Holy Land by Naples and Sicily. During the journey, Richard slightly deflected from his course in order to wrest the island of Cyprus from the Greek prince Isaac, who was suspected, with reason, of being friendly with the Saracens.

The third crusade did not fulfil all the anticipations that were entertained of it. There were many romantic exploits and much individual valor was displayed, in fact, the third crusade more than any other has become the theme for the novelist. But, unfortunately, the misunderstandings between

the French and the English were almost more serious than the quarrel between the Christians and the Saracens. Philip returned to France disconsolate and disgusted, and Richard continued the contest single-handed. His diplomacy rather than his victories succeeded in procuring from Saladin, the magnanimous leader of the Saracens, permission for Christians to visit the holy places unmolested.

183. **The Fourth Crusade**, in 1198, took place in the reign of Innocent III. It was originated by Fulk of Neuilly, who was warmly supported by the Pope. The commander-in-chief at first was Count Theobald, but owing to his early death, the Italian Boniface of Montferrat was appointed to the dignity. Other important personages were Louis, Count of Blois, Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and Simon de Montfort, afterward so renowned in English history, and finally Geoffrey of Villehardouin, from whose written records we derive most of our information concerning the expedition.

The old difficulty of transporting the crusaders was met by an active alliance with the Venetians. The Venetians supplied the necessary ships and provisions, while the French agreed to pay in return 85,000 marks of silver and to allow the Venetians an equal share of the conquest.

184. **The Crusaders Take Constantinople.**— But certain events at Constantinople diverted the expedition from its original course. The brutal and unpopular Isaac Angelus had been deposed by his older brother Alexius, and was blinded and confined in a dungeon (1195). Another Alexius, the son of Isaac Angelus, appeared in the French camp, and appealed for help. Boniface of Montferrat, now the commander-in-chief, and Dandolo, the Doge of Venice, undertook to restore Isaac. Constantinople was taken mainly through the seamanship of the Venetians, and Isaac was reinstated on

the throne. Young Alexius, however, found it difficult to make good the rich promises with which he had persuaded the crusaders to help him. The grievous taxes laid on the people and the plunder of their churches made them revolt. Events then moved with startling rapidity. Isaac died suddenly, his son Alexius was strangled, and an adventurer, Alexius Ducas, had himself made emperor under the title of Alexius V. The Christians now made a second attack on the city, and after a fierce onslaught succeeded in taking it in April, 1204. Alexius V was killed, and the crusaders avenged themselves by a wholesale pillage and massacre. Another Latin kingdom was now set up at Constantinople, and the Franks and Venetians divided the spoil between themselves. A Frenchman, Count Baldwin of Flanders, became emperor; a Venetian, Thomas Morosini, became patriarch of the new orthodox empire. Boniface was made king of Thessalonica, while the Venetians not only obtained possession of a considerable quarter of Constantinople itself but they also acquired important settlements in Greece, especially on the Peloponnessus, together with nearly all the coast-land and islands including the Ionian islands and the Cyclades.

The Fourth crusade thus accomplished a great deal in changing the map of Europe, but as regards the professed object of the crusade, namely the recovery of the Holy Land, the results were practically nil.

185. **The Fifth Crusade** (1217) was undertaken by Frederick II, whose reign we have already reviewed. Strange to say, this prince, whose orthodoxy was so often under suspicion, and who at the very time of the crusade was under sentence of excommunication, succeeded in accomplishing much more than any of his predecessors. After skilled negotiations, he made a treaty with the Sultan by which most favorable terms were granted. Bethlehem, Nazareth, and Jer-

usalem were restored to the Christians, the only condition being that the mosque of Omar should still be allowed to remain in the hands of the Saracens.

186. **The Last two Crusades** were practically fought out by St. Louis of France alone. The old crusading spirit had died out and even the recapture of Jerusalem by the Turks failed to rouse Europe. In 1249, St. Louis at the head of an army attacked the enemy in Egypt. The issue soon showed that the place of campaign was ill-advised. The Christians found themselves in a desert and difficult country, cut off from the basis of supplies. They were soon surrounded by the enemy. Resistance was hopeless and the whole army had to lay down its arms, Louis himself being taken prisoner but shortly afterward released. However, in 1270 Louis again took the cross and this time directed his forces against Tunis, a place almost as inaccessible as the other. Instead of besieging it he became besieged in his own camp and fell a victim to the plague in the August of 1270.

187. **Results of the Crusades.**— The crusades brought about a revolution in the general condition of society. They loosened the connection between the landowner and his holding, a connection that was greatly responsible for the stereotyped form of medieval society. Vast multitudes of men by coming into contact not only with the East but with other continental nations had their ideas suddenly enlarged. Society thus became less localized, less medieval and more ready for the great changes of the sixteenth century.

The crusades were also the occasional cause of new religious orders that for several years played an important part in European life.

188. **The Military Orders.**— It was during this time that the military orders were established. Hitherto the monk

and the soldier had been two separate types, but now they were blended into one. While taking the three vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, they also undertook, when duty required, to fight the heathen.

The two chief of these military orders were the Hospitallers and the Templars. The Hospitallers were founded by Raymond Le Puy in 1130, and as soon as their monastic life was begun, adopted the rule of St. Augustine. Their special work of charity was to look after the safety and comfort of the pilgrims to the holy places. After the capture of Jerusalem they took up their residence in Cyprus. From there they went to Rhodes, and finally in the sixteenth century settled down in Malta, where they remained until the Napoleonic wars in 1798. It was from there that we have the Maltese cross of four-tailed arrow points, still a substantial feature of the British flag. Even now there exists in Brandenburg, a branch of the order and is recognized by the King of Prussia.

The Templars were founded about the year 1128. Their chief duty was to protect pilgrims on their way to the holy places. Their habit consisted of a white mantle, upon which was embroidered a large cross. A great number of their foundations called temples, soon sprang up all over Europe. In each of these there were three distinct groups of knights, simple men at arms, and chaplains. In London at the present day, the Temple Church is part of one of these old establishments, while in Paris, the temple where Louis XIV was imprisoned for a time before his execution also belonged to the same order.

189. **Effect on Commerce.**— Perhaps the most remarkable way in which the crusades reacted on Europe was in the promotion and expansion of commerce. Contact with new lands and with the new productions of the East increased

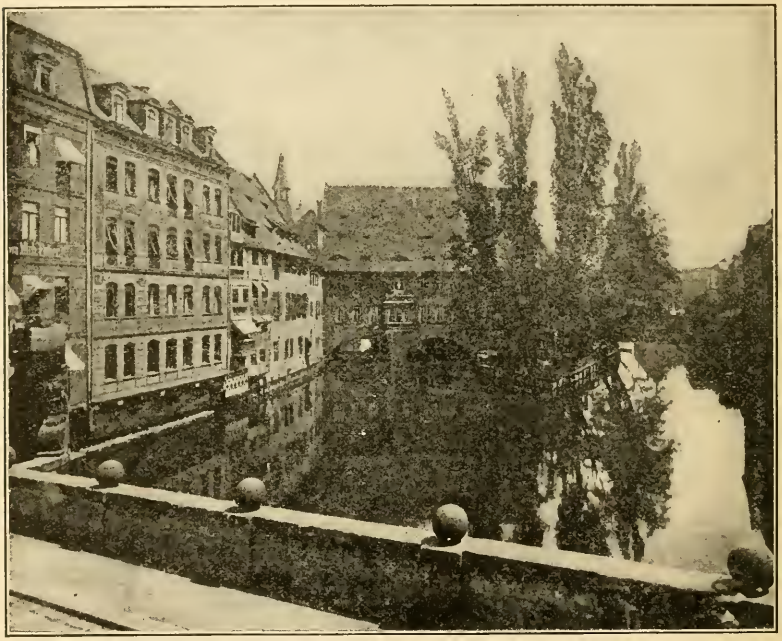
the range of men's wants and suddenly widened the markets. Spices, perfumes, and precious stones were much in demand, while judging from the treaties of that time cloves seem to have become a necessary article of diet. The trade routes from the East converged at Venice and thence went up the rivers Danube and Rhine to the cities of north Germany. Venice especially profited by this. Like Genoa and Pisa, she had had trading quarters in most of the Eastern cities and the fourth crusade gave her important possessions in Constantinople. Venice soon became a great maritime empire, the coins of all countries found their way there, and at Venice was started the first bank that in any way resembles our modern bank. It was merely a bank of deposit, but it prepared the way for the bank of Genoa which also traded with the capital of its customers. Thus to the crusades we are partly indebted for the earlier introduction of our banking system.

190. **Heraldry.**— As another result of the crusades may be mentioned the introduction of the art of heraldry. It became necessary to distinguish the different orders of nobles and knights, and for this purpose a court of heraldry was established. During the 13th century, in France there was such a court, governed by an official who bore the title of "king-at-arms," the same title as that worn by the present chief of the college of heralds in London. Appropriate coats of arms were invented and a complicated language put together such as could be understood only by the initiated.

191. **Rise of Free Towns.**— The period of the crusades is also the period of the rise of the towns. The weakening of the ties between the landlord and the soil tended to lower the condition of the feudal baron, and the growth of com-

merce tended on the other hand to give greater importance to centers of commercial activity.

The rise of towns during the middle ages must no doubt all times and in all countries, such causes for example as increase of population, a certain restlessness brought about by be attributed to the same general causes that are at work in



A view in old Nuremburg.

greater civilization, and the need for defence and mutual intercourse. But in addition to these general causes the towns were very often the result of deliberate intent. For example, Freiburg, or "Free Town," was founded by Duke Berthold of Zahringen, who summoned the future citizens together, and distributed among them their freeholds round what was intended to be the future market-place.

192. **Government of the Towns.**— The government of these towns was at first in the hands of the lord of the town, whether bishop or prince, and at first each inhabitant had to contribute personally the dues that had to be paid to his over-lord. But gradually there crept in the custom of making the whole town collectively responsible for these dues, so that they were paid direct to the over-lord, not by the individual but by the body that represented his interests. This change, was perhaps not of much financial importance, yet it emphasized the growth of the corporate life of the town, and prepared the way for the assumption by this representative body of other and more important political rights. Partly by violence, partly by commuting the ordinary feudal obligations for certain fixed payment the town generally managed to acquire practical independence and self-government.

193. **Trade Guilds.**— This government, however, did not reside in the general body of the citizens, but in the hands of the trade guilds, which were associations of members belonging to the same trade for such purposes as self-defence, regulation of the hours of labor, of the wages that were paid, and of the quality of the goods sold. These guilds were also insurance societies, and a member who became sick or who fell into misfortune could always rely upon his guild for help. Nor were these associations merely financial. They were hallowed by certain traditions and by a spirit of reverence on the part of the members.

The guilds were of two kinds, merchant guilds, and craft guilds. The merchant guilds were the first to appear, and consisted of those traders that had a greater amount of capital and who were engaged in the more extensive financial enterprises. Since the town was pre-eminently a trading center the members of these guilds were the most important among the citizens, and it was they who first of all acquired

control of the affairs of the town. But by degrees those who by wealth and position did not belong to the merchant guilds began to form certain associations of their own. These were the craft guilds, and their organization greatly resembled that of the merchant guilds.

The entire trade of the city was regulated entirely by these trade guilds, and every one who wished to enter a certain trade had to follow strictly certain regulations. His first position was that of apprentice. For a certain number of years, depending upon the difficulty and importance of the trade, he spent his time in learning the trade and received no wages. At the end of this period of probation he became a journeyman, and as such he could earn wages, but could not carry on business by himself; he was still forced to work for some master. Finally he became a master-workman and could set up a shop on his own account.

The local feeling and tradition that resulted from corporate town life were exceedingly strong. In the same way that the knights formed among themselves a caste of so distinct a type that there was, for example, a far stronger feeling of sympathy between an English knight and a French knight than between an English knight and an English peasant, so it was with the people of the towns. A tradesman from London would be considered a foreigner in the town of Bristol, and the towns either singly or associated, would often wage petty wars entirely on their own account.

194. **Political Power of the Towns.**— When, therefore, the towns rose to the height of their power they began to play an important part in the history of Europe. Already the league of towns in northern Italy decided the contest between pope and emperor in favor of the former. And there were also other leagues. Perhaps the most important of all was the Hanseatic League, which was a union of the German towns

chiefly in the interests of trade. Many of the existing towns in Germany belonged to this league. Lubeck was considered the capital town of the league, but other towns like Cologne, Brunswick, and Hamburg were important centers. The league had also important settlements in other countries. In London, the Steelyard, near London bridge, was one of these settlements, and another could be found as far east as Novgorod — still one of the most commercial towns of Russia, and celebrated for its annual fair. The Hanseatic League soon acquired great political importance. Its ships practically policed the seas and its men of war conveyed the merchant vessels from port to port. It was able to defy even the strongest of nations. It warred successfully against England and was able to dictate to that country its own terms, while in a war against Denmark it succeeded in procuring that in future all new Danish monarchs must obtain the sanction of the league previous to ascending the throne.

195. **Civilizing Effects of Towns.**— This power that was exerted by the leagues of the towns was generally beneficial to Europe. It secured the triumph of law and order. When large towns all over the continent were engaged in important financial transactions it became necessary that there should be a universal and efficient code of law that might settle disputes and uphold credit, and in this direction the towns were constantly using their influence. The code of law they used was the Roman law codified by Justinian, which was exceptionally strong on its commercial side and soon found favor throughout Italy and the other parts of Europe.

The towns also exercised an important indirect influence through their economic activity. Owing to the widening of markets, and the greater intercourse between distant parts, money began to assume a greater importance as a common means of exchange. This meant a gradually weakening of

the essential elements of feudalism. A landowner would often accept money instead of material services and this of itself tended to place the tenant in a more independent position, while the sovereign of a country would often adopt a similar policy on a larger scale. Thus by degrees the king instead of relying for the defence of the kingdom on the military service of his tenants began to depend upon a system of taxation which secured to him the permanent services of a large standing army.

196. **Rise of the "Third Estate."**— Finally the rise of the towns meant the rise of a third element in the political power, namely the third estate. Hitherto there had been only the two estates, namely those of the clergy and of nobility. But now the people, owing to the rising importance of commerce and money, acquired a share in controlling the destinies of the nation. Nor were they unfit for the task before them. The inhabitants of the cities and of the towns were quite abreast of the learning of the times in its most practical forms. In nearly every city and town there were schools, mostly conducted by lay teachers, in which reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught, and also the elements of Latin, history, and geography. At first there were no special buildings set apart for schools, the instruction being given in the church or some municipal building. But towards the close of the fifteenth century, the schoolhouse formed a conspicuous feature of the town. The education that was given, though simple, seems to have been thorough, and in some cities, like Venice, the inhabitants seemed to have attained a high standard of classic and philosophic culture.

197. **The Universities.**—The twelfth century was remarkable for its intellectual movements. Until that time education was of a narrow and stereotyped character. Beside the

city and town schools, which were of later origin, there were the monastic, the cathedral, and the parochial schools. These schools were almost exclusively in the hands of the clergy, and the education given was primarily for ecclesiastical purposes. Seven years were spent in the study of the seven liberal arts; these were divided into the trivium, consisting of Latin grammar, logic, and rhetoric, and the quadrivium, consisting of arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music.

198. **Schools of Knighthood.**— It would, however, be unfair to consider the education of the early middle ages as being either purely ecclesiastical or academic. The school in which the knight was brought up laid particular stress on things that might be overlooked by the ordinary cleric. A healthy physique, a just appreciation of the courtesies of life, and an acquaintance with one's native tongue, were the chief elements of knightly education. Much stress seems to have been laid upon what we consider as quite the modern side of our educational system. The questions of feudal law and practice were also made familiar to the young knight.

199. **The Rise of the Universities.**— During the twelfth century, however, there took place a revolution in the educational life of Europe. The purely local element became quite subordinate and there came to be founded large associations of teachers and scholars, assembled from all parts of the world, and forming distinct corporations of their own called universities. These universities enjoyed distinct rights of self-government, which were afterwards generally secured to them by letters patent from the pope or from some temporal prince. Usually the administration of the affairs of the university was entrusted entirely to the students who could even regulate the length of the hours of lecture and had jurisdiction to punish any of their body who had committed any

offence. The universities were extremely democratic in their principles. No distinction was recognized save that of learning, and the wealthiest prince associated with the poorest prince on an equal footing. Perhaps there was no agency so potent as that of the universities in breaking down the barriers of class distinction created by medieval society.

Most of the universities at their rise seem to have acquired fame owing to proficiency in some branch of knowledge; much in the same way as students at the present day are drawn to one or other of the German universities in order to join in the benefits of specialization in some particular branch, so students would flock from remotest parts of Christendom in order to sit at the feet of some great doctor, learned in some particular branch. The most important subjects that then constituted the final end of university teaching were medicine, law, and theology, and to these three subjects corresponded the three universities of Salerno, Bologna, and Paris.

200. **University of Salerno.**— Most monasteries in the middle ages had a little library of medicine and their novices were also instructed in the rudiments of this science. The medical school at Salerno had already achieved wide-spread celebrity. Under Frederick II it had acquired an existence of its own apart from the monastery and obtained such important recognition that none were allowed to practice medicine without a license from its doctors. It is also interesting to observe that even at Salerno general culture was not neglected, since previous to entering upon the medical course, three years had to be spent in the study of humanities.

201. **University of Bologna.**— The most important university in Italy was that of Bologna, which became the most famous law school of Europe. We have already seen that

the towns made imperative the use of some common code of law and that the code in question was that of the Roman law edited by Justinian. Irnerius, a jurist under Countess Matilda, became famous at Bologna for his lectures on law, and soon Bologna became the central law school of Europe, its lawyers teaching and expounding the civil law in almost every town of Christendom. But besides the civil law there was also the study of church or canon law, and in ecclesiastical circles one sure way to distinction was by becoming an eminent canonist. The chief compilation of canon law, was Gratian's decrees, which became the recognized code in ecclesiastical jurisprudence. Gratian himself who compiled the work, also lectured at Bologna and thus became the rival of Irnerius. It must be admitted that the study of canon law was by far the more practical of the two; for the empire, from which emanated the civil theory, had become a mere theory, while the papacy and the church councils, from which issued the canon law, were yet living facts.

202. **University of Paris.**— While the university at Salerno was distinguished for its study of medicine, and that at Bologna for the study of law, the University of Paris became famous as the central theological school of Christendom. Unlike most of the other universities, the Paris University was an association of the teachers only, and did not comprise the students, probably owing to the youth of those who attended.

In the University of Paris there were four faculties—those of theology, canon law, medicine and arts. The arts were divided into the old-fashioned trivium and quadrivium and were considered a necessary preliminary to any of the other faculties. The instruction consisted of lectures and disputations. In each faculty there were three degrees — Bachelor, Licentiate, and Doctor or Master. For the M. A. a course

of three years and a minimum age of twenty-one years were required, while five years was the condition for the first degree in theology. Over each faculty there was a dean. The governing executive consisted of the deans of the four faculties who met in congregation and were presided over by the vice-chancellor. Another term, familiar to those acquainted with Oxford University, was that of Proctor. This official in the Paris University was responsible for the good conduct of the students, who were divided into groups according to nationalities, each group being governed by its own proctor.

203. **Schools of Theology in the Church.**— The man who more than any other inaugurated the greatness of the Paris University was Peter Abelard. In all ages of Church's history there have been within the fold of the Church two distinct schools of thought. There is the conservative school of thought that clings to the old beaten paths of tradition, and there is the liberal and progressive school which, while not professing to reject in any way the essentials of Christianity, yet tries to deal with spiritual problems from the most modern and progressive point of view. The leaders of this liberal party are often men of genius, but are apt to incur suspicion since many of them have deviated from the strict path of orthodoxy. Peter Abelard was one of these. He not only taught the importance of reason even in religious matters but he went still further, and making an abuse even of that system of reason which he taught denied the doctrine of trinity. His two chief opponents were St. Norbert and St. Bernard, the leaders of the conservative school. Eventually, he was condemned by the pope. He then retired to Cluny where he died after recanting his errors. But Abelard's disciples still kept up the reputation of the University of Paris for learning and eloquence. Arnold of Brescia, who taught the practical consequences of Abelard's doctrines, also became ob-

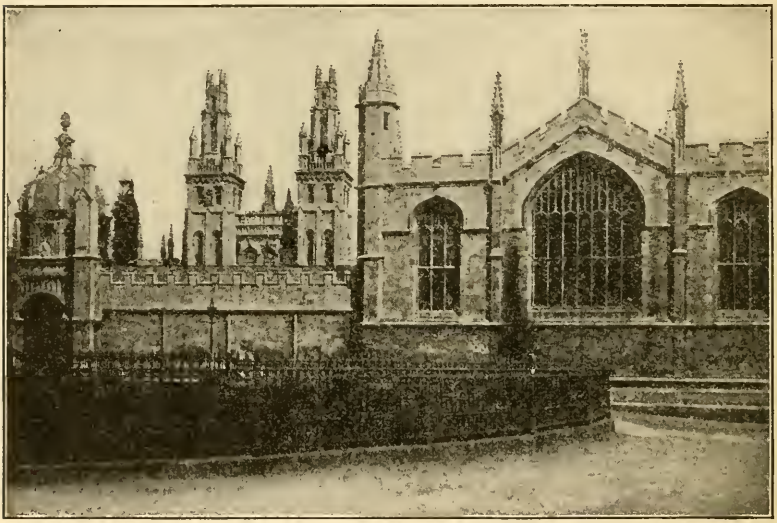
noxious to authority, and after leading the revolutionists of Rome against the pope was condemned to death as a heretic. But there were others among Abelard's disciples, equally famous but who were regarded as champions of orthodoxy. Amongst these was Peter the Lombard, the celebrated author of "The Sentences."

There is little doubt but that the clerical element predominated in the University of Paris, and even in many other places the clerical element was closely connected with the growth and constitution of the university.

204. **Friars and the Universities.**— At Paris and Oxford, this was largely owing to the struggle that arose over the privileges and claims of the new mendicant orders of the Franciscans and of the Dominicans. Many of the university statutes and regulations trace their origin to the desire of defining exactly the relations of the friars with the university, and the collegiate system itself can be traced back to the colleges of the older religious orders.

205. **The Importance of the Friars** as a connecting line between the Church and the university affords a luminous illustration of the more general work done by the friars during the later middle ages. Until then, the religious life strictly so called, had affected the world only indirectly. The monk, whether he belonged to the Cluniac type or to the later reformed congregations of the Cistercians or Carthusians, was absolutely secluded from the world and he could only affect it by his prayers and the power of his example. On the other hand, the canons, though assuming religious vows, and at the same time living in the world, did not practice that severe poverty and complete renunciation that characterized the older monk. Anyhow their work was that of the ordinary ministry of the church, and they were confined to one particu-

lar locality. There were yet no missionaries strictly so called, and yet some activity of this kind had become absolutely necessary. Moreover, something else was needed besides the routine life of the canon regular. The demand for some new kind of spiritual activity was supplied by the friars who were wandering missionaries, practicing the most complete renunciation, and yet mixing in the spirit of fraternal love with all men, the highest and the lowest, the richest and the poorest.



All-Soul's College at Oxford.

206. The Franciscans.— The first of the orders of the friars was that of the Franciscans, named after their founder, St. Francis. St. Francis was born in 1182 and was the son of a travelling merchant. His early years were spent in a careless life taken up with the cares and pleasures of the world, but heavy afflictions fell upon him and caused him to enter into himself and to lead a new life. He abandoned all his worldly goods and gave himself up to a life of penance

and self-denial. The fame of his sanctity soon drew others around him and thus was formed the nucleus of the new order. At first there was no attempt at any fixed and definite organization. The association that was formed was merely the result of a providential evolution, and its members in many things only copied the virtues of the previous existing orders. Prayer, fasting, mortification, obedience were all practiced by the Franciscans to a very high degree. There were, however, two characteristics in which the Franciscans considerably differed from the other religious foundations. These were their corporate poverty and their personal service to mankind.

207. **Peculiar Characteristics of the Franciscan Order.**— Hitherto, individual poverty had been deemed sufficient. While the individual monk must both in spirit and in reality deprive himself of all worldly treasure, the monastery itself, the association of monks, might hold any amount of property. The results of this distinction were bad. Abbeys and priories in the pursuit and management of vast estates easily lost their fervor, and the sense of corporate ownership was eminently detrimental to the spirit of poverty. Francis and his followers now even renounced corporate wealth, and preferred to depend for their subsistence upon the daily alms of the faithful.

Besides this heroic practice of poverty the Franciscans were also distinguished by the readiness with which they engaged in all works of charity both spiritual and temporal. Far from claiming any exemption from episcopal jurisdiction they placed themselves entirely at the disposal of the bishops, who might use them in diocesan and parochial work according as they thought fit. Many of the secular clergy objected to the presence of the friars but the friars maintained that their purpose was merely to perform those duties that were omitted

either owing to the deficiency of the pastors or to the negligence of those in charge.

Besides ordinary practical work, the friars held what would be called missionary revivals. Wandering through the public roads and streets, they collected round them large crowds to whom they preached with simplicity and earnestness the truths of faith. Besides all this the Franciscan was a philanthropist. He usually dwelt in the poorest part of the city in order to console and minister to his poor brethren, and his presence was most familiar where fever or leprosy was claiming its victims.

208. **Franciscan Rule.**— In the year 1210 St. Francis drew up a rule for his order. It contained forty-five precepts of which twenty-seven were obligatory under pain of mortal sin and eighteen under pain of venial sin. Among the precepts of the first class the following are the important: The prohibition of the use of money, the recitation of the Divine Office, and the performance of certain fasts throughout the year. After the completion of the rule, St. Francis went to Rome to seek the approval of the pope, then Innocent III. At first, the pope refused to see him, but after a dream in which the pope saw the tottering walls of the Lateran supported by the friars, he admitted Francis to his presence and by word of mouth solemnly approved of the order.

The rule was of the simplest kind and made no provision for a hierarchy of officials nor for those minute details that are so necessary in any large body of men in order to secure permanent harmony and cohesion. St. Francis had always dreaded anything like the stereotyped rule that was found in the other orders. The abuses of formality and officialism that had so often resulted, were fatal to real spirituality, and he preferred to let the relations between the members of the order, as well as the routine of its daily life flow naturally

from virtuous impulses. No doubt, this theory is sound for a small body of known and reliable men, but when it came to be applied to a large body of men of different characters and dispositions it soon became evident that there was also needed some system of method and organization.

209. **The Conventuals.**— There were two men who speedily came into prominence as modifiers of the original rule of St. Francis. These men were Brother Elias of Cortona and Cardinal Ugolino who afterwards became Pope Gregory IX. They not only prescribed a more minute and definite rule for the government of the order but also introduced some modifications into Francis's complete system of corporate poverty, by permitting the erection of churches and convents. This party among the Franciscans came to be known as the Conventuals, and they were always bitterly opposed by the stricter part called the Observants who clung to the original simplicity and absolute poverty of St. Francis.

210. **Third Order of St. Francis.**— Not long after the foundation of the order of Franciscans or Grey Friars, as they were sometimes called from the color of their habit, a new branch of the same order was founded called the Third Order of St. Francis. Its members were allowed to live in the world and fulfil their ordinary avocations but were obliged to undergo one year's novitiate, perform certain fasts and abstinences, and to practice certain virtues. Some of the most distinguished persons in Medieval History belonged to the Third Order, among whom were the Emperor Charles IV, St. Louis of France, Elizabeth, queen of Portugal, and Christopher Columbus. But it was chiefly the middle class that enrolled themselves among its members, and thus the Third Order soon acquired political importance. It had a considerable number of members scattered throughout the

towns of Italy who naturally championed the cause of the Pope against that of the emperor Frederick II.

211. **The Dominicans.**— The next great order of friars after the Franciscans was that of the Dominicans, called from their habit the White Friars.

St. Dominic was born in Spain in 1170. When twenty-eight years old, he became a canon regular, and soon afterward accompanied his bishop to France. During his stay there he became profoundly impressed with the growing power and influence of the Albigensian heresy. In order to prevent the extension of this heresy in southern France, he founded a religious institution in Toulouse consisting of zealous preachers who by the fire of their charity might convert the heretics and confirm those who were wavering in the faith. He drew up a rule which consisted partly of the rule of St. Augustine and partly of certain constitutions of his own. In 1217 the rule was solemnly approved by Pope Honorius III and the new order became known as the order of Friars Preachers.

212. **Spirit of the Dominican Order.**— The spirit of the new order was from the very first different from that of the Franciscans. It was essentially academic, and aimed at reaching the heart not so much through the emotions as through reason and conviction. The Dominicans soon came in close touch with the universities. Both at Paris and at Cologne the Friars Preachers occupied the most important chairs. At the latter city, Albertus Magnus astonished everyone by the depth of his knowledge and the wideness of his erudition. But his fame was soon eclipsed by one still greater, the great St. Thomas of Aquin, whose Summa Theologica traversed the whole range of philosophy and theology.

213. **Intellectual Labors of the Friars.**— It was not long before the Franciscans also imitated the Dominicans in the

intellectual labors. The names of Roger Bacon, Duns Scotus, and William Ockham spread the fame of the Franciscan school at Oxford throughout Christendom, while at the same time there also grew up a school of Franciscan literary writers whose works are full of mystic piety and pregnant with deep emotion. The two hymns, the "Stabat Mater" and the "Dies Irae" made so familiar by musical genius were written by Franciscan friars and are worthy to be placed on a level with the "Panga Lingua" by St. Thomas Aquinas.

The general influence of the friars on the universities and on the general state of culture in Europe can scarcely be overestimated; not only did the study of theology assert for itself a very important place in the curriculum of studies but the whole method of learning underwent an alteration.

214. **Scholasticism** which was the fashion of learning introduced by the friars derives its peculiarity not so much from the subject matter which was wider than most people think as from its method. Great stress was laid on clear and forcible reasoning, while accuracy of expression and mental force of analysis and subtlety of distinction were cultivated to the fullest extent. Even the beginnings of modern science owe a great deal to the mental training imparted by the early scholastics.

From another point of view, the influence of the friars was beneficial in promoting the study of the vernacular. Sermons were given to the people in their native language, sermons that were often conveyed with great force and eloquence of style, while a great number of religious poems often revealed to the people hitherto unsuspected beauties even in the ordinary vehicle of daily speech.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Contact between Eastern and Western civilization — Immediate causes of dispute between Turks and Christians — General

causes of the crusades — Beginning of the First Crusade — Character and leaders of the First Crusade — Advance of the First Crusade and its contact with the Eastern Emperor — Battles of the First Crusade — Foundation of the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem — Second Crusade — Its origin, leaders, and failure — Character and leaders of the Third Crusade — Practical results of the Third Crusade — Fourth Crusade — Its origin and Leaders — Capture of the city of Constantinople — Foundation of the Latin kingdom of Constantinople — Fifth Crusade — Its origin, leader, and importance — Sixth and Seventh Crusades — Failure of Louis VII — General results of the crusading movements — Changes in society — New military orders — Changes in commerce and trade — Introduction of the art of heraldry — General and particular causes of the rise of the towns — Growing financial and political importance of the towns — Merchant guilds and craft guilds — Regulation of the guilds — Corporate life in the towns — Important leagues of the towns — Commercial law started by the towns — The weakening effect on feudalism caused by the towns — The rise of the third estate — Character of the schools of the medieval period — Elements of knightly education — Revolution in the educational system — Rise of the universities — Their specialization in certain branches — The medieval school at Salerno — Law school at Bologna — University of Paris — Its constitution, faculty, and nature of its degrees — Peter Abelard, and the liberal school — Influence of the friars in the universities — St. Francis, the founder of the Franciscans — Nature of corporate poverty — Franciscans ready for any work of charity — Rule of St. Francis and its approval by Pope Innocent III — Bro. Elias and Pope Gregory IX — The Observants and the Conventuals — Third Order of St. Francis — St. Dominic founder of the Dominican order — Difference between the Dominican and Franciscan spirit — Writings of the friars — Rise of scholasticism — Influence of the friars on the Vernacular.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRANCE

215. Centralizing Influences in France.— During the contest between the empire and the papacy France had been slowly growing into a united nation, and while both Germany and Italy had ended by being hopelessly split into independent provinces the Capetian dynasty was bringing together the separate dukedoms of France by the unifying influence of royal power. In France, as elsewhere, the crusades had tended to lesson the power of the feudal barons and to strengthen proportionally the centralizing power of the king. At the same time, various concurrent causes were fast building up the internal greatness and prosperity of France. The university of France, which had a levelling and unifying influence on all classes of French society, the rise of the towns, the growth of commerce which bettered the condition of the people, and the wandering friars, who by their sermons and writings were hastening the spread of one common vernacular — all these causes were able to exercise their own influence without being constantly neutralized by constant sedition and warfare.

But even so the results would not have shown themselves so quickly if there had not been one definite line of policy adopted by a succession of sagacious and able monarchs.

216. Difficulties of the Early Capetian Kings.— The position of the early Capetian king was difficult and complicated. Even in his feudal domain he was not supreme master, for the minor barons were constantly striving to assert their independence of royal authority. Against the castles of these

recalcitrant nobles the king had a very small force at his disposal, since he had neither a standing army nor any definite source of revenue with which to hire soldiers. Naturally matters were still worse outside the king's own personal domain. The power of the great feudatories in the north and south was almost equal to his own and if they had acted together he would have been absolutely powerless. Nor was this all. At least one-half of French territory was in the hands of the hostile English. During the reign of Henry II. all the western part of France was in English hands, and France was even cut off from communication with the western seas. However, even supposing all these difficulties were already surmounted there was still wanting some machinery of government by which both legally and constitutionally, without friction, the royal power might exercise itself in the different parts of the kingdom.

The task therefore which confronted the French kings was of a threefold nature, first, to assert their power in their own personal domain, secondly, to absorb into the royal domain the powerful independent feudatories, and thirdly, to build up the machinery of monarchical government.

217. **Louis VI.**— The first part of the task was undertaken successfully by Louis VI (1108–1137). Though greedy and sensual, he was a strenuous fighter and had sufficient political sagacity to choose and trust able ministers. He lead a series of expeditions gainst the brigand barons, and completely crushed Hugh du Puiset who was the most formidable of his enemies. One by one the hostile castles that had prevented free intercommunication were taken, and commerce was able to follow its lawful routes. By degrees the subjugation of the nobles lead to a change even in the internal administration of the kingdom. The assembly of turbulent nobles could now be dispensed with, and Louis could entrust the power of adminis-

tration to officials entirely dependent upon himself. Among these were the able Suger and three brothers of the name of Garlande.

Louis had also the help of the clergy and of the common people, whose interests had suffered at the hands of the baronial oppressors. Even in Louis's time the commercial movement was in evidence, and by giving a large number of charters, he made himself the patron and protector of the towns. A happy instinct thus enabled him to avoid the mistake made by Barbarossa, who only a few years later by trying to bar the irresistible wave of commercial progress, found his cherished projects in Italy completely shattered.

218. **Philip Augustus.**— This prudent policy of Louis VI.— a combination of political sagacity and martial activity was continued under his successors, especially Philip Augustus (1180–1223). Even more than Louis, he posed as the protector of the commercial classes against the barons, while the promotion of foreign commerce raised the towns to a position of even greater importance. It was under Philip Augustus that Paris, the central town of the royal domain, became the important city that it is to-day. Even its material plan and greatness dated from that time. Then, as now, in the center was the Isle of the Seine on which were situated the Cathedral of Notre-Dame; on the right bank of the same river was the University with its famous residential colleges, while on the left were the residential and mercantile quarters.

Besides consolidating the royal power within the borders of its own domain, the next step was to absorb into the French monarchy the lands of the large outside fiefs, and especially the huge western territory occupied by the English. The accomplishment of this more ardous task was brought about partly by a combination of circumstances, but perhaps still more by the adroit policy of the French kings.

219. **Relations With England.**— The one great mistake made by Louis VI after the loss of his able minister Suger had been the divorce of his wife Elinor of Aquitaine, which meant not only the loss to himself of that duchy but also the gain of it to England, owing to the marriage of Elinor to Henry II. Indeed, if it had not been that Henry's hands were kept busy by his quarrels with St. Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, by difficulties in Scotland, and by the turbulence of his own sons, the English encroachments on French soil might have gone on to an indefinite extent. But besides these weak points in the enemy's armor, the death of Louis VI raised to the throne the able Philip Augustus who even better than Louis VI. knew how to grapple with the difficulties of the situation.

There were constant quarrels between Henry II and his sons, and Philip used these for his own advantage. He allied himself with Henry's son, the future Richard I., who had been entrusted by his father with the duchy of Aquitaine. The united forces of the French king and of the rebellious son drove Henry II back into Normandy, where he died — his end being hastened by grief and shame at the treachery of his own children. Then when Richard became king, Philip intrigued with John, the brother of Richard. Here, however, he received a partial check owing to the warlike ability of Richard. But when Richard died and his brother John succeeded then the most favorable opportunity of all presented itself. John's own foul and unscrupulous character, his supposed murder of his nephew Arthur of Brittany, his marriage with the betrothed bride of one of Philip's vassals, his quarrel with the powerful Innocent III, and more than all, the disputes between himself and his barons (over such questions as taxation and the liberty of the subject) gave Philip an overwhelming advantage. Before the end of John's reign, Maine, Anjou, and Touraine had passed from English into

French hands and the death of Elinor also severed the final tie between the duchy of Aquitaine and England. Only the southwestern provinces still remained faithful, perhaps for commercial reasons, for Guienne and Gascony were mainly dependent upon England for their trade in salt and wine.

The personal domain of the kings of France now for the first time surpassed all the others in extent and importance, and Philip was in possession of ample means for extending his power over the other feudatories of France.

220. **Influence of the Heresies in the South.**— In this again the French king was helped by outside circumstances. It was in the south of France that the old feudal spirit of independence was strongest and that the nobles were mostly in opposition to the king, and it was precisely here in the enemy's stronghold that fortune mostly favored the royal cause. The Albigensian heresy, like the heresy of the Catharites and Patarini was an offspring of Arianism. Its doctrines were various and hard to define, but its rejection of the authority of the Church marked it out for evident condemnation. The country of Toulouse especially was infected with this heresy and even Count Raymond of Toulouse was at first one of its zealous adherents. Pope Innocent III sent preachers into the province to try and extirpate the heresy by force of persuasion and argument, but in vain, and furthermore Raymond was suspected of having connived at the murder of one of the papal representatives. A crusade was now proclaimed in 1208, and the leader of the crusading forces was Simon de Montfort. The heretic and anti-monarchical barons were subdued, Raymond was driven out of his province, and Simon himself did homage to the king of France for the conquered territory. Only for a time did Raymond manage to regain possession of his dominion. In the course of another crusade, preached by Honorius III, the French king Louis VIII man-

aged to secure possession of a good part of Languedoc while the ruin of the local barons meant the future triumph of French monarchy.

221. **The Royal Appanages.**— It now remains to be seen how the direct action of the French kings helped to absorb the great feudal states into the French monarchy. There was in fact only one practical course to pursue and that was to grant to the members of the royal family certain districts, called appenages, to rule over and, and after thus providing them with wealth and influence to bring about marriage connections between these royal children and the heiresses of the outside feudatories. To have tried to accomplish this result by force of conquest would have been exceedingly risky, whereas this, though a slower policy, was surer in its aim. Much has been said against this distribution of appenages among the royal children, but on the whole the king was yet scarcely strong enough to govern personally his vast domain, and on the other hand, if the royal children were still left in their old condition of penurious weakness and inferiority it would have been difficult to bring about these marriages which were the best means for bringing eventually into the French monarchy so many of the vast feudatory estates.

Already by the will of Louis VIII, Robert, his second son, had been made Count of Artois, Alphonse, his third son, Count of Poitou, and Charles, the youngest son, Count of Anjou and Maine. In 1229, during the reign of Louis IX, it was provided by the treaty of Meaux that Raymond, Count of Toulouse, should be allowed to retain his country on condition that he married his daughter and heiress to the aforesaid Alphonse, Count of Poitou. After a successful marriage had thus been arranged for Count Alphonse, Charles of Anjou, the youngest son, contracted a marriage with Beatrice, daughter of Raymond, Count of Provence, and this circumstance

also secured to the royal house the possession of a rich estate in the south. It was not long before Northern influence and manners completely invaded the hitherto separatist land of the South. Even in the very language and in the architecture of the country the change made itself felt, the Langue d'oc being supplanted by the harder dialect of the Lange d'oui, and the Romanesque style of building yielding to the pointed arch and flying buttress of the Gothic style of the North.

222. **Louis IX** pursued the same policy as Louis VIII. Appenages were granted to Louis' two younger sons. Peter became Count of Alencon and Robert became Count of Clerment-en-Beauvaisis. The usual successful marriage soon followed, and Robert, by marrying the heiress of the great Bourbon feudatory, extended the influence of the Capetian house in the east of France.

We may sum up by saying that the matrimonial policy of Louis VIII. and of his son Louis IX. succeeded in drawing into the French monarchy all the lands of Auvergne, Toulouse and Provence in the south of France, and the important Bourbon state in the east. At the same time, the immediate practical results were seen in the reduction of the hitherto independent power of the bishops and nobles, the curtailment of the local autonomy of the towns, and the general establishment of law and order. In the east, the kings of France had in the Bourbon estates a convenient means of checking the dangerously growing power of the Duchy of Burgundy.

223. **Internal Consolidations of France.**— We now come to the third and last step in the growth and consolidation of the French Monarchy and that was the establishment of some machinery of government by which the royal jurisdiction might be exercised in the vast acquisitions that had been thus made by the Capetian House.

Here also, we find a remarkable continuity in the policy of the French kings. They all seemed to have agreed on the following points: to bring the towns within the sphere of royal influence by a judicious mixture of firmness and royal patronage, to curtail the local power of the clergy and nobles and bring them into subjection to the crown, to carry on the administrative business of the country through a hierarchy of royal officers, and finally to make the king the actual supreme source of all authority, legislative, political, and executive.

224. **Development of Administrative Machinery.**— Already during the reigns of Louis VI and Louis VII royal judges were sent to administer justice throughout the kingdom, while local officers, called prévôts, administered the king's estates. Under Philip the Second this system was improved and amplified. It was found that the prévôts, like the local sheriffs in England, could not always be trusted, so new officers were appointed called Baillis, who were superior in authority to the prévôts. Under Philip II, the towns also were brought as much as possible within the sphere of royal influence by the granting of charters and by other signs of royal protection and favor.

It was not, however, till the time of Louis IX (1220) that the administrative machinery seems to have arrived at maturity. Important developments now took place both in the local and central system of government. Since the Baillis had shown themselves liable to the same defects as the prévôts, tending to become independent local magnates, new royal officers were appointed called enquesteurs. Their duties resembled those of the Carolingian Missi Dominici. They had to inquire into and to correct the abuses of local officials, and they thus formed a connecting link between the circumference and the center of the constitutional system of government. The restraints that in consequence of the reports of the en-

questeurs, were imposed on the baillis not only testify to previous abuses but also show the settled policy of the king to make the local officer dependent wholly upon him. The bailli was forbidden to marry anyone in his bailiwick, to surround himself with his relatives or give office to them; he was ordered to hold court regularly and in person, and to send to the king a report of the proceedings, while before assuming office at all, he was required to take oath that he would preserve the rights of the king and the local liberties of the place.

225. **Central System of Government.**— With regard to the central system of government, an increased area of jurisdiction and the more complicated work that it entailed brought about a corresponding division of labor. We have already seen this in England, where the legislative body became completely severed from the judicial, which was then subdivided into the courts of King's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas. A similar process now took place in France. Up to this time the king had been helped in his work of government by a council that attended indiscriminately to all sorts of business, whether legislative, financial, or judicial. But now, for obvious convenience, this council was divided into three distinct bodies, each with a separate jurisdiction of its own, but all three depending upon the king. First, there was the Council proper, or Grand Council, which had to perform many of those legislative and executive duties that now pertain to the American Congress and Cabinet; second, there was the Parliament *(parlement)* which was really a high court of justice constituting a supreme court of appeal; third, there was the treasury, the *gens des comptes,* corresponding to the treasury department at Washington, that took charge of and manipulated all the financial business of the kingdom. By these various devices the king prevented the bailli from incurring any obligations other than those to himself.

226. **Influence of Louis IX.**— This framework of the French constitution under Louis IX was evidently constructed not only with a view to good government but also with the design of making the royal power the center and fulcrum of the administration in all its branches. The same design was kept in view in the other measures of Louis' reign. While always a zealous defender of the true interests and rights of the Church, he was equally careful that bishops and other clerics should keep within their own proper sphere and should fulfil their duties as ordinary citizens by paying taxes and by being amenable to the civil law. Perhaps it was partly the same policy that lead him to show such preference to the mendicant friars above the other clergy, entrusting to the friars many important duties and appointing one of them as his own confessor — a position that in France was for a long time of considerable political importance. Then again, even in financial matters, Louis contrived to weaken the independence of localities and strengthen the central position of the crown. Hitherto, the right of coinage had been allowed to a great number of little provinces, the result of which was a great inconvenience to travelers passing from one province to another; Louis remedied this by decreeing that the king's coinage should be legal tender everywhere. Naturally, the local coinages tended to die out, and one common coinage took their place — a process which constantly symbolized far and wide the king's power and hastened the commercial unity of the kingdom.

It must be borne in mind that in all these reforms the character of the king himself was a most important factor. His evident uprightness and sense of justice conciliated many who would otherwise have been bitter opponents; even if some of his measures struck at the private interests of parties and individuals, it was universally recognized that he was actuated by a sincere desire to promote the general welfare of the kingdom.

227. **Philip III.**— The policy of Louis IX was continued under his successors, though certain portions of it were more emphasized than others. Philip III (1270), his immediate successor, still further lessened the power of the nobles and increased the number of appeals to the parlement. He also reduced the political privileges of the Church. In France, as in England, the immunity given to clerical offenders had produced grave abuses; this immunity he now restricted, and in the matter of taxes and the public contributions he forced the Church to take a greater share in bearing the financial burden of the ordinary citizens.

228. **Philip IV.**— Under Philip IV (1285) an important addition was made to the general council of the realm. In 1302 there were summoned for the first time representatives from the towns, thus adding to the two estates of the clergy and nobles a third estate, that of the people. The immediate object of the king in doing this was merely to secure money more easily. It was only, however, the accident of circumstances that prevented the Third Estate from playing the same important part that it did in England, and at the time of the French Revolution the Third Estate actually did realize its possibilities in becoming the instrument by which the balance of power might be transferred from the classes to the people.

229. **Position of France in Europe.**— On the whole, France during the middle ages had been singularly favored. She was able to hold aloof from the struggle between the empire and the papacy, and, as we shall see, was able to act as mediator. The menace from the foreign English rule had been lessened by the quarrels between the English king and his sons and by the discord between the king and his barons. The danger from the independent southern provinces had been greatly neutralized by their heretical tendencies that

alienated from them the sympathies of orthodox Christians, and last, but not least, a long succession of French kings had adhered to the lines of a prudent and far-sighted policy.

It now remains to consider a few episodes which throw light upon the corresponding influence of France in Europe, and which, at the same time, will form connecting links between the history of France and that of the rest of Europe.

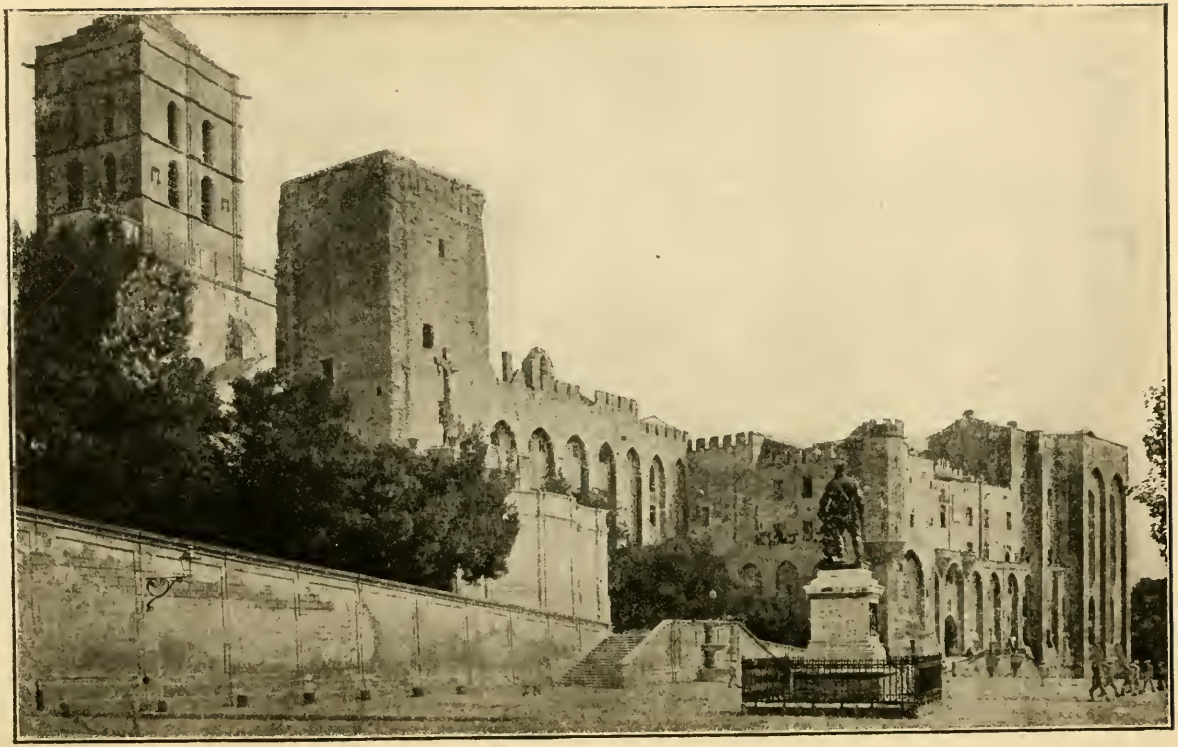
230. **Action of France in the Investiture Contest.**— We have already seen that France took no part on either side during the investiture contest. We might add still further that she even played the honorable part of an intermediary. It was the French king that suggested to the emperor the advisability of the compromise arrived at in the Concordat of Worms. He pointed out to the emperor that in France no harm had resulted from allowing the Church the right of investiture with the sacred symbols, provided the state handled the ceremonial that pertained to the lay side of the ecclesiastical benefice. Again some years afterwards, during the bitter struggle between Frederick II and the papacy, it was a king of France, Louis IX, that not only adopted a position of strict neutrality but strove to reconcile both pope and emperor.

When France did positively interfere in European politics, she assumed a strong and dignified position. When Pope Innocent III was deposing by force the recalcitrant Otto of Germany, France arrayed itself on the side of the pope, and the combined French and papal forces inflicted upon Otto his irretrievable defeat at Bouvines in 1214.

231. **Friction Between France and the Papacy.**— About eighty years afterwards, in 1294, France reversed her policy of alliance with the papacy and became its open antagonist. The serious friction that rose between France and the papacy was rendered almost inevitable by the very nature of things.

During the feudal age the local French clergy had necessarily enjoyed an almost complete exception from the burdens that were laid on the other citizens, but as France became one solid united nation this peculiar position allowed to the clergy became a stumbling block. The immediate cause of trouble was the question of taxation. The king alleged that the clergy, like other citizens, ought to bear the burdens as well as the privileges of citizenship, while the clergy naturally pleaded the peculiarity of their position as officers of the Church, and the force of precedent. The pope upheld the clergy in their resistance. When Philip IV demanded one-fifth from both clergy and laity alike, the clergy were able to fall back upon the decree *clericis ad laicos* which forbade any churchman to pay to any temporal ruler any part of the Church's possessions. But it soon became evident who was likely to get the best of the struggle. The king had almost the unanimous support of his own kingdom, both the lawyers and the States General approving of his action. Nogaret, the king's ambassador, and some of the Colonna family who were hostile to the pope besieged Boniface VIII at Anagni. Boniface was overpowered, made prisoner, and after being grossly maltreated died a few weeks after.

232. **The Popes at Avignon.**— His successor Benedict II lived only one year, and in 1304, when the papal throne again became vacant, Philip thought he would settle the question definitely by procuring the election of a French pope. The bishop of Bordeaux was accordingly elected. He assumed the name of Clement V (1305). Events soon justified Philip's choice. Partly owing to the condition of anarchy prevailing at Rome, partly owing to the king's personal wish, the pope found it convenient to transfer the papal court to France. At first he had no fixed residence, but eventually he settled down at Avignon, in southern France, a place which remained



The old palace of the Popes at Avignon. The town and the neighboring district remained a Papal possession until 1791.
Maria Theresa appealing to the Hungarian Parliament.

a papal possession even down to Napoleonic times, and still interests the eye of the tourist with the remains of the old papal palace. The popes continued to reside in France for about seventy years from 1304 to 1377, an exile which is commonly called the Babylonian Captivity.

233. **Position of the Papacy in France.**— The pope's position then was something like what it is to-day in Italy. Avignon was as much his as the Vatican palace belongs to Pius X, but men constantly suspected the pope of French influence. While no one nowadays would dream of suspecting Piux X of being under the influence of the Italian government, yet there were circumstances that justified the suspicions of the people of the fourteenth century. The king's domineering proclivity was well known, and the revocation of many of Boniface's decrees, together with the suppression of the Templars (an act which, however, was justified by the abuses that had arisen in that order) could clearly be traced to the influence of the French court.

234. **Development of Representative Government in England.**— The development of England was contemporaneous with that of France and was carried out in some respects on the same lines. Under Henry III, the successor of the wicked king John, an important progress in the condition of the House of Commons took place. As yet only the barons and knights had attended Parliament. In 1265 Earl Simon de Montfort, son of the Simon who had crushed the Albigenses, summoned also citizens from each borough. This recognition of the third estate resembled that which took place in France in the time of Philip the Fair, but produced far more important results, lasting indeed all during English History. At first, it meant little more than the right of granting taxes, for the higher clergy, the barons, and citizens still sat apart,

while the citizens were at first timid in asserting their voice; but when in the course of time the knights and burgesses sat and deliberated together then the presence of the burgesses perhaps more than anything else contributed to the formation of democratic popular government in England.

235. **Edward I. and the Parliament of 1295.**— When Edward I, the English Justinian, ascended the throne in 1272, the English constitution became in germ all that it is to-day. In the House of Commons, not only both the lesser knights and the burgesses attended Parliament, but the knights, who had hitherto been regarded as mere local deputies for purposes of taxation, now took part in the general work of governing the country. In 1295 Edward I introduced a further innovation of his own. The lower clergy were requested to send to the House of Commons representatives of their own. The clergy, however, steadily refused to avail themselves of this privilege. Even when the clerical representatives were sent they preferred to sit aloof and vote their own taxes in their own assemblies called convocations. Ultimately these convocations lost not only all political power, but even their right of separate self-taxation, and the minor clergy sank back among the general body of electors. Still the Parliament of 1295 will ever be famous since it was then that the knights of the shire assumed a constant share in the administrative business of the country.

236. **Judicial System of Edward I.**— In the political sphere, Edward I completed the reform of Henry II. He subdivided still further the functions of the administration of justice. He constituted himself and his council into a supreme court of appeal, a court that afterwards gave rise to the judicial powers of the Privy Council, and especially to the important powers of the chancellor, the presiding judge of the court of

chancery, with its jurisdiction over widows and orphans, and power to deal with cases not included in the scope of the common law.

237. **No Tax Without the Consent of the People.**— During this reign the grand principle was again formally recognized that the king could not impose any fresh tax without the consent of his people. When Edward had been violating in this matter the provisions of the Magna Charta, he not only solemnly begged pardon of the people in the House of Commons, but issued a charter in which he asserted that all such unwarrantable taxes in the past would not be used as a precedent and that he would impose no fresh tax without the consent of his faithful commons.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Rising greatness of France under the monarchy — Difficult position of the early Capetian kings — Threefold task of th Capetian kings — Reign of Louis VI — His subduing the insubordinate barons — His patronage of commerce and of the towns — Reign of Philip Augustus — Paris the great capital of France — Philip's wise policy obtains for France part of the English possessions — Outside circumstances help the king to extend his power over the South of France — The royal policy of granting appanages and its consequences — Reign of Louis IX — He pursues the same policy of granting out appanages — Immediate results of this policy during Louis IX's time — Continuity in the policy of the French kings also shown in perfection of the local system of government under Louis VIII and Louis IX — Parallel between the division of functions in the English and in the French courts of justice — Relations between the king and the church — The king's influence over financial matters — Reason of the power of Louis IX — Administration of Philip III — Important addition made by Philip IV to the General Council of the Realm — Most important episodes in French foreign policy — French intervention in the quarrel between the empire and the papacy — Philip IV quarrels with the Pope over the question of clerical taxation — Pope takes up his residence at Avignon — Results of this on French and European politics

— Reign of Henry III in England — Under the administration of Simon de Montfort important changes made in parliamentary representation.— Reign of Edward I — The clergy summoned to Parliament — Gradual decline of the political power of convocation — Edward I completes the judicial reforms of Henry II — He signs the charter admitting the principle that no taxes should be imposed without the people's consent.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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CHAPTER XIV

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

238. **Character and Causes.**— The Hundred Years' War from 1338 to 1451 was fought between England and France. Its after effects on this internal history of the two kingdoms and its widespread area give to it a considerable importance in European history. Not only was the very identity and existence of England and of France at stake, but soldiers from distant parts parts of Europe took part in the war, enlisting themselves on one side or on the other.

The main cause of the Hundred Years' War was the fact that there were English possessions on what was geographically French soil. The English channel was clearly the natural frontier between the two countries, and yet the important provinces of Gascony and Guienne were in the hands of the English. A struggle thus became inevitable and it only remained for some definite hostile act on either side to bring to a head the mutual jealousy and suspicion of the rival nations.

It was natural that France, being constantly provoked by the sight of an alien occupation of her own soil should strike the first blow. Profiting by the insubordinate attitude of Scotland towards Edward I of England, her over-lord, France found a pretext for an open quarrel in the long outstanding rivalry between the French and English seamen, a rivalry which culminated in an open sea fight. Philip the Fair laid the blame on the English, and as suzerain of Edward summoned him to appear before his court. Edward, being pre-occupied with the Scots sought a brief delay by temporarily ceding into Philip's hands the province of Guienne. But this only

made the intentions of the French King still more evident, for at the end of the forty days of cessation Philip refused to give up the province that had been thus temporarily ceded.

France had chosen rightly her own time for starting the war, as for several years from that time the strength of England was diminished by the struggle for Scottish independence. So frequently did France strike at England through Scotland that Scotland became nicknamed the "apron" of France. By supplying Scotland with arms, money, and men, France was able to exercise a check on the policy of England and to lessen her capacity for war.

239. **England's Allies on the Continent.**— While the main purpose of France during the war was to assert her territorial integrity, it was the natural interest of England to keep within the sphere of her influence the Duchy of Guienne, with which England had such an important trade in wine, and especially to secure the permanence of her wool trade with Flanders. England was mainly an agricultural country and her chief produce was wool; Flanders was essentially a manufacturing country and possessed the art of working up the raw wool into excellent cloth. Thus, as far as England was concerned, the war was mainly a commercial war; it was fought for motives of trade, and her most important ally, Flanders, was attached chiefly by considerations of commercial advantages.

240. **Battles of Sluys and Crecy.**— The war was fought out chiefly in France; it was there that the decisive battles were waged and that the most disastrous effects of the war were felt. The victories during the first campaign were all on the side of the English. At the battle of Sluys (1340), Edward III, with his comparatively smaller fleet, successfully demonstrated the superior efficiency and generalship of the English

navy, and when he landed in France, the decisive engagements were again all in his favor. It is true that Edward was compelled to withdraw from his intended march on Paris, owing to the too evident superiority of the enemy's numbers and also that he was compelled to retreat gradually before the French army, but when Edward at the village of Crécy (1346) turned round and faced the enemy, his victory was complete and overwhelming. No doubt he was helped by certain natural advantages. His army was posted on a rising slope and he was fighting on ground of his own choice; also a sudden storm had wetted the strings of the Genoese archers on the French side; but the real cause of success was of deeper significance. The battle was a contest for superiority between the French feudal cavalry and the English yeoman archers, and the result was the death-blow of what was the essential material support of feudalism; the mounted horseman had been the very type of the material strength of feudalism but the battle of Crécy proved that he was no match for the humble archer. The use of artillery, observed for the first time at Crécy, though doing little to determine the immediate fortunes of the day, yet foreboded what was destined to shatter forever both the feudal horseman and the feudal castle.

241. **Poitiers.**— Soon after this battle the town of Calais, an important sea-port town, was taken by the English and in the year 1347 operations on a large scale were again started in France. Again the English won an important battle, this time at Poitiers in a more southern part of France. The English army was lead by the Black Prince, the king's eldest son, already conspicuous for his valor at Crécy. On this occasion also the English army was in retreat, being pursued by a superior force, and again the English were able to fight in a strong position of their own choosing. The French army

had to fight its way around through a narrow lane where its very numbers only tended to its greater confusion, and a sudden attack by the English cavalry on the flank quickly decided the battle. The French King himself was taken captive, together with a great number of the French nobility (1356).

242. **Treaty of Bretigny.**— The result was the treaty of Bretigny (1360), by which the English king ceded to France the northern provinces, but was confirmed in the more important possession of the southern Duchy of Aquitaine. By the same treaty the English king also renounced his claim to the throne of France, a claim which was scarcely made in seriousness, but rather with a view to strengthen the alliance between himself and Flanders.

But the English occupation of French territory, which was the original cause of the war, still continued and nine years afterward hostilities were again resumed, which finally drove the English from the soil of France.

243. **Renewal of the War.**— The grievous taxes imposed by the English government upon the southern provinces caused a revolt, which was made all the more serious by their evident sympathy with France rather than with England. The lords of Aquitaine appealed to King Charles V of France, who eagerly took up their cause. The English army was now considerably handicapped both by the illness of the Black Prince, and by the severity of the winter climate, and in a short time the victory of a Spanish fleet over an English fleet completely cut off any communication between the English contingent in France and its base of supplies. Resistance became hopeless, and by the end of Edward III's reign all that England still retained in the south of France were the two towns of Bordeaux and Bayonne.

244. **Agincourt and the Treaty of Troyes.**— In a few years' time, however, the madness of the French King Charles VI and the bitter strife between the two great political parties of the Burgundians and Armagnacs, headed respectively by the Duke of Burgundy and by the Duke of Orleans, furnished a favorable opportunity to England's desire for revenge. The King of England, at that time was Henry V (1413–1422), a man of great energy and warlike ability. In 1415 he sailed for the Norman coast, captured Harfleur and marched into the heart of France. On the field of Agincourt (1415) he encountered the French host. As usual the English army was favored by its more favorable position and the French cavalry plunging through the miry ground soon became thrown into confusion; the English army, on the other hand, had successfully compensated for its inferiority of numbers by massing itself in a narrow space between two woods, where it could be safe from a flank attack. The French were completely overthrown, and in 1417, after a brief rest in England, Henry V renewed the invasion of Normandy, took its capital Rouen and made with the French King the treaty of Troyes. By the terms of this treaty, Henry V was recognized as regent of France, and as its future sovereign, while the close alliance between the two countries was still further cemented by the marriage of Henry V with Catharine, the eldest of the French princesses.

245. **Joan of Arc.**— This brilliant success was destined to be the last that was to wait on the English arms. In the year 1422, only two years after the treaty of Troyes, Henry V died, and English France was governed by the Duke of Bedford acting as regent for King Henry VI, a minor. The military genius of the Duke of Bedford was nearly equal to that of Henry V, but all his efforts to retain France were baffled by the renewed enthusiasm that inspired the French by

the appearance of Joan of Arc, surnamed the Maid of Orleans. She proclaimed herself as one sent by Heaven to redeem France from the hands of the invader. The sanctity of her life and the immediate fulfilment of her predictions gave force to her words. The French army was saved from its demoralization and a wave of patriotism swept over the country. In 1429 she raised the siege of Orleans, and triumphantly led the French army through Troyes up to the gates of Rheims, where Charles VII was solemnly crowned as King of France.

Her mission was thus accomplished, but she was not permitted to retire to her beloved retirement. She unfortunately fell soon after into the hands of the English, and on a charge of sorcery was burned in the market place of Rouen.

246. The Lancastrian Experiment in Normandy.— The Duke of Bedford recognized as an accomplished fact the hopelessness of retaining the great bulk of the former English possessions. He wisely determined to concentrate in Normandy the scattered forces and energy of the English. Nothing, indeed, could be more interesting and plausible than what is called the Lancastrian Experiment in Normandy, which was an attempt to convert Normandy into a thoroughly English province. Not only was the French element driven out of the sea-port towns, but the English system of parliamentary representation, of administration of justice and local by-laws were all introduced, while the new university at Caen, still in existence, promised to become a center of English culture. But the experiment failed. The whole system was too artificial, and Normandy, which was at first English in its tastes and sympathies, began to change its temper and to wish for absorption into the neighboring French territory.

247. English Driven out of France.— By the year 1435 it became clear that all chances of any English occupation of

The Capture of Orleans.

French territory were lost. The genius of the Duke of Bedford was powerless against the overwhelming force of circumstances. Burgundy, which had also been such a faithful ally of England, now under Philip the Good formed an alliance with the King of France, the feeble efforts of Talbot Earl of Shrewsbury to retain Gascony were foiled by the superiority of the French army, and to crown all, the Duke of Bedford found himself without any support from the home government. The same great cause that had weakened France and invited the Hundred Years' War now showed itself also in England. As France had been torn asunder by the contending factions of the Burgundians and Orleanists, so now in England there began to appear the beginnings of those two factions who were shortly to plunge England into all the horrors of the civil wars of the Roses, and effectually to prevent her from regaining the territory she had lost abroad.

About the year 1453, the Hundred Years' War between England and France drew to a close, and the only fragment that was still left of the once powerful possessions of Henry II, was the little town of Calais. This remained English for about a hundred years more and at the present day still bears evidence of the lateness of the English occupation.

248. **A survey of the Hundred Years' War** seems to reveal a contradiction between the facts of that war and the result. Nearly all the great battles were won by the English, and yet the fruits of the struggle were all in the hands of the French. In a long war of conquest, however, a succession of brilliant victories do not always spell success. Perhaps when they are won by the people whose territory is invaded, as in the Greek-Persian wars, they may do so, but to ensure success to the invader something more than isolated brilliant victories is required. All during the campaign the English had to fight far away from their base of supplies, from which they were

sometimes altogether cut off, and they had to contend against the French spirit and sympathies of the land they were trying to occupy. The madness of the French king and the existence of two mutually hostile political parties in France at first favored England, but these accidental circumstances soon passed away. Indeed, the incapacity of the weak-minded King Henry VI and the quarrel between the houses of York and Lancaster in the Wars of the Roses seemed exactly to revert the condition of things in favor of France.

249. **Results.**— The Hundred Years' War had the important result of hastening the internal development of France and England. In France many of the old feudal houses became extinct at the disastrous battle of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, and on the other hand, there began to be formed a royal standing army, which with the permission of the States-General in 1439 was raised by the king and supported by a general tax called the "taille." This, of course, meant the lessening of the power of the feudal nobles on the one hand, and on the other it meant the strengthening of the royal power which finally became absolute.

In England the Hundred Years' War also had the effect of weakening the power of the barons, a great many of whom with their retainers perished on the fields of France. But it would be scarcely true to say that the power of the king was correspondingly increased. Indeed, the Hundred Years' War with its consequent burden of taxation and its ultimate series of disasters contributed materially to the overthrow of the royal House of Lancaster, while the power of the people, owing to economic effects of the war, received a fresh impetus in the direction of a democratic government. We must now turn to consider the rise of another European state that was soon to assert for itself an important and an abiding place in the pages of history.

250. **Rise of the House of Hapsburg.**— While the Hundred Years' War was rapidly shaping the future destinies of France and England, certain important movements in Germany were laying the foundation of the greatness of the two houses now reigning in Germany proper and Austria. It was during this time that the House of Hapsburg quitted its ancestral seat in Switzerland in order to acquire the Austrian dominions, and connected with this was the circumstance of the rising greatness of the House of Hohenzollern.

251. **Method of Imperial Election.**— When the Hohenstaufen dynasty in Germany came to an end there ensued an interregnum of twenty years, during which time no German king obtained general recognition. In 1257 there took place a double election that brought into prominence the changing character of the electoral body. Originally the electors were the nobles and ecclesiastics, but since the number of these grew unwieldy it was thought better to entrust the task of election to a small committee consisting of the three archbishops of Cologne, Maintz, and Trier, and of the four secular leaders of Saxony, Bavaria, Franconia, and Suabia. Later, however, owing to the changes that had taken place in the national duchies of Saxony, Bavaria, Franconia and Suabia, the Bavarian vote was by 1257 exercised by the Count Palatine of the Rhine, the Franconian vote by the Margrave of Brandenburg, while the Suabian vote went to the King of Bohemia, who represented the Slav nationality. Thus the seven electors in 1257 were three archbishops already named, and the four lay rulers of Brandenburg, the Palatinate, Saxony, and Bohemia.

Some of these electors chose as king Richard, Duke of Cornwall, brother of Henry III of England; the others chose Alphonse of Castile. As might be expected, neither candidate had any real authority, though Richard, owing to his wealth

derived from the mines of Cornwall, and to the support of the Pope had the stronger position of the two. On the death of Richard, Pope Gregory X, one of the few strong popes of this period, secured a fresh election and in 1273 Rudolph, Count of Hapsburg, was elected. The election was opposed by King Ottokar of Bohemia, but Rudolph defeated him and confiscated his possessions. He allowed Bohemia proper to return to Ottokar's son, but Austria and Styria he added to his own personal hereditary possessions. From that time to now, Austria, with its capital Vienna, has always remained the seat and centre of the House of Hapsburg.

252. **Rudolph I** was also the founder of the policy of his house. This policy consisted in abandoning all Utopian schemes of a world-wide empire and resting content with the consolidation of his own personal dominions in Germany.

The imperial title, however, did not remain constantly with the Hapsburg House. On the death of Rudolph in 1292, the electors chose Adolph of Nassau, and although he was set aside six years after and succeeded by Albrecht I, the son of Rudolph, yet on Albrecht's death the succession again went outside the Hapsburg House. This time it was the houses of Luxemburg and Bavaria that alternately supplied candidates for the imperial title, and it was not until Albrecht II, in 1438, that the imperial title finally reverted to the House of Hapsburg.

253. **Imperial Succession and Policy.**— Between 1308, the date of Albrecht's death and 1438 the date of the return of the Hapsburgs to imperial power, the following in succession were the most imporant emperors:— Henry VII of the house of Luxemburg, Lewis of Bavaria and Charles IV of Luxemburg. The reign of Henry VII was signalized by the revival of the old dream of a universal imperial domination. He was

a man of talent and determination and there was a chivalric side to his character which prompted him to listen to the strong appeals from Italy that he should intervene and restore order to that land so torn asunder by internal strife and petty tyranny. It was to him, indeed, that Dante addressed these words: "Come to see your Rome which weeps, widowed and alone and calls out day and night: 'My Cæsar, wherefore does he not attend me!'" Henry VII listened to the appeal, but his brief success in the north of Italy was cut short by his sudden death in 1313. His successor, Lewis the Bavarian, spent most of his time in the same policy of Italian intervention, and his presence in Italy only brought into still clearer light the reluctance of the Germans to interfere outside of Germany, and the silent disregard of the Italians for the individual who aimlessly moved about in their midst.

254. **The Golden Bull.**— In 1347 the imperial crown reverted again to the House of Luxemburg in the person of Charles IV. Perhaps the event which most memorizes the reign of this king is his issuing the Golden Bull in 1356. This document definitely confirmed the powers of the seven electors and attempted to put into a constitutional form the respective rights and relations of the king and the princes.

255. **Policy of Charles IV.**— Owing to the marriage of his father with the Bohemian princess Elizabeth, Charles IV was also the hereditary ruler of the kingdom of Bohemia, and soon showed towards it great partiality. He extended its frontiers so as to include Silesia and Moravia, and greatly enriched its capital Prague, where he founded the first university of Germany. In other respects, however, the policy of Charles IV was marked either by failure or by apparent weakness. His intervention in Italy was attended by even greater humiliations than in the case of his predecessors. It is said that some-

times one single situation can throw more light than many words of explanation — and surely the sight of an emperor locked up in the palace of Sienna and verging on starvation sufficiently illustrates the impotence of the emperor in Italy, and the contempt for him entertained by the Italians. Charles also failed to preserve to the empire the old kingdom of Burgundy and is particularly to be blamed for not coming to the help of the Knights of the Teutonic Order, who were the most faithful defenders of German Eastern frontier.

256. **Rise of the House of Hohenzollern.**— Charles IV. died in 1378 and was succeeded by the emperors Wenzel, Rupert of Palatinate, and Sigismund of Luxemburg. None of these reigns was remarkable in itself, but in the reign of Sigismund an accident prepared the way for the future greatness of the House of Hohenzollern. Sigismund had acquired Brandenburg by right of inheritance, and being overwhelmingly in debt to Frederick of Hohenzollern he handed over to him the duchy of Brandenburg. Brandenburg thus became the political cradle of the House of Hohenzollern and under their firm and sagacious diplomacy it eventually developed into the kingdom of Prussia.

257. **The Swiss Confederation.**— The death of Sigismund in 1438 meant the final restoration of the imperial title to the House of Hapsburg. The original home of the Hapsburgs was the castle of Hapsburg in the southeast of Suabia, near the line of railway which now runs from Olten to Zurich. The forest cantons of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden were under the jurisdiction of the Hapsburgs. In 1291 the absence of the Hapsburgs in their new Austrian possessions seems to have loosened their hold upon their Swiss possessions, for at that time the three cantons above mentioned threw off their allegiance to the Hapsburgs and assumed independent

political rights. Nor were they content with merely throwing off the feudal yoke of their over-lords, for they even encroached upon surrounding territory. The Hapsburgs in vain protested by force of arms. At the battle of Morgarten (1315), the Hapsburg Austrian army received a severe defeat at the hands of the rebels, who, being afterwards joined by other cantons, were thus able to form the nucleus of what eventually became the Swiss Confederation, the first of present day European republics.

258. **Difficulties of the Austrian Government.**— The Hapsburgs themselves were not long in recognizing the hopelessness of the task of keeping under subjection a people territorially so distant and in sympathy so alien to their rule. When Albrecht II succeeded Sigismund in 1438, he made no attempt to reclaim their allegiance, but confined himself to the consolidation of his new hereditary dominions. These were already sufficiently extensive; not only the Archduchy of Austria proper, but also Bohemia and Hungary were under his sway. Such extended dominions, however, brought with them special inconveniences. It is always a hard and dangerous task to rule over different populations settled on different soils. During the fifteenth century there began that contest between the Teutons in Austria and the Slavs in Hungary and Bohemia that even to this day is the most serious menace to the House of Austria.

This element of civil discord was, as in the case of the Albigenses in France, complicated by religious dissent. John Huss, born in 1369, was a popular preacher in the Slav language. While still professing himself to be a faithful son of the Church he tried to propagate the doctrines of Wycliff. He was summoned before the IV Council of Constance (1414) and was condemned and executed as a heretic. His followers after his death organized themselves into a fierce religious-po-

litical party and greatly added to the discord already existing among the discordant races.

259. **Insurrection of the Peasants.**— During the reign of Edward III, there began to appear in England two very important movements that were destined to have far-reaching consequences on the political and religious life of England.

The first of these movements was the insurrection of the peasants. There were many causes that made the English peasant profoundly discontented. The Statute of Laborers in compelling the laborer to work at a given rate was a galling injustice, and the restriction put upon the movements of laborers also greatly interfered with the natural course of trade and inflicted great hardships. The old feudal dependence of the serf-laborers upon the landlord was also a grievance. Hitherto, they had been obliged to perform certain fixed services as a rent for their small holdings, but now they began to assert their right to pay their rent in the form of money. Then there were other grievances, such as the heavy taxes and market tolls, the selfish monopoly of the guilds, the growing wealth of foreign merchants, and capitalists who were settling in the kingdom.

All these causes combined together to produce the famous peasant rising of 1381. The want of cohesion, however, among the rebels, the selfishness of their leaders, and the firmness of Richard II saved the situation, but the rising marked a step forward in the progress of the common people. Although the insurrection was suppressed, we find that shortly afterwards, most of the serfs were allowed to pay their rent in money, and the condition of the peasant in regard to other classes of society, was considerably improved in dignity and comfort.

260. **Spread of Lollardry.**— Closely connected, but not identified with the peasants' revolt, was the spread of Lol-

lardry. The Lollards were a religious sect that had flourished in Germany, and the term Lollard was afterwards applied to all those who in any way concealed erroneous religious views under the guise of piety. In England, there rose about the same time as the revolt of the peasants, a considerable section of men who held very advanced views regarding the Church and society, and ultimately taught doctrines that were utterly at variance with essential teachings of the Church.

261. **William Wycliff.**— The founder and head of this new religious movement in England was William Wycliff, rector of the small parish of Lutterworth in Leicestershire. He first began by preaching the necessity of reform, especially in regard to the excessive wealth of the clergy. He also advanced an opinion that all authority is derived from grace and that therefore, no one enjoyed real authority, unless, he were in a state of grace. This theory which appears at first so startling, was reduced to a mere shadow by certain distinctions and by the fact that his doctrine of dominion founded on grace, was only a theory and did not hold in practice since the Christian must in any case always obey by reason of the obedience that he owes to God. Further than this, such a doctrine if put into practice would result in nothing less than the complete subversion of the entire existing political and social order of things.

262. **New Heresies of Wycliff.**— It was not long however, before Wycliff altogether abandoned his position as a son of the Church and denied such essential doctrines as those of the Real Presence, indulgences, worship of the saints, and the authority of the pope. At the same time that Wycliff thus appeared as a revolutionist in the Church, his followers, by the unrestrained zeal of their discourse caused the Wycliffian movement to be identified with the peasants' rising. It was

his wandering priests that stirred up the people by declamations about the equality of man and the unlawfulness of certain money making trades. The result was that Wycliffism incurred the suspicion and displeasure of both the spiritual and the temporal powers.

Wycliff, however, continued the contest and with his new weapon of pamphlet writing, continued to assert his favorite doctrines. It is evident that his writings had an effect for Lollardry still continued even after his death. Under Henry IV, was passed the statute "de heretico comburendo," which aimed at the destruction of the Lollards. Many of them were thus either killed or silenced, but the tradition of the movement kept alive a certain political hostility to the papacy, an hostility which was fanned by the sight of the immense wealth of the Church and was an omen of the final separation of England from the Church during the reign of Henry VIII and Elizabeth.

263. **Growth of English Liberty.**— During all these years the English Constitution had been slowly perfecting its system of representative government. The abuses that had weighed upon the people under the Norman and Angevin kings had been substantially removed. The personal despotism of the king, unlawful and arbitrary imprisonment, excessive taxation, interference with the rights and privileges of the people, had been swept away. Owing to the alliance between the people and the barons, who at first worked from unselfish motives, the inconveniences that resulted from an excessive central authority were on all sides considerably lessened.

We have already seen that under Edward I Parliament had asserted successfully the doctrine that no taxes should be imposed save by the common consent of all the people of the realm. When Edward II dared to govern in violation of the constitutions of the realm, he was deposed by act of Parlia-

ment. Under the reign of Edward III the following principles were definitely established: first, that all taxation without the consent of Parliament is illegal; second, that both houses, namely, Lords and Commons, must concur in legislation; third, that the Commons may inquire into and amend the abuses of administration. Even in our times these principles form the very foundation of the democratic constitution of England and the United States, and the same may be said of the rights that were secured to the House of Commons under Richard II. These rights were: first, that no taxes could be levied or laws enacted without its consent; second, the inspection and control of the entire government; third, examining the public accounts and declaring to what purpose the public funds should be put; fourth, the right of impeaching offenders, i. e., accusing them before the bar of the House of Lords. Besides these fundamental and all-important rights which still remain to the House of Commons, the two Houses managed to acquire other rights closely connected with safe and easy despatch of business, such rights, for example, as freedom from arrest (except for treason, felony, or breach of peace), freedom of speech and the right to decide disputed elections.

264. **Theory and Practice of the English Constitution.**— There is no doubt but that in practice the apparatus of constitutional government was in these times thoroughly democratic. The power of the people was fully recognized, and had already become an accepted axiom. In this regard nothing can be more instructive than to compare the legal theory in the twelfth century regarding the royal power, with the legal theory which prevailed in the fourteenth. Bracton, the early exponent of English law, maintained that the will of the prince was law, while Chief Fortescue, who was Chief Justice in 1442, declared that the king derived his power from the people.

Yet, in spite of all this there were grave defects which almost completely neutralized the benefits that might have been expected from a state of things so democratic in practice and in theory. Some of these defects, indeed, exist even in our own time. First of all the people were not really represented at all, and the voice of the all-powerful Parliament was not really the voice of the nation. The system of representation was unfair and inadequate. The south of England was allowed to send up far more representatives than the north and the work of electing was often engineered by small groups of powerful magnates. Worse than all, only persons worth forty shillings a year were allowed to elect members of Parliament. This restriction had the effect of disfranchising the rising small farmers who now formed a great part of the English middle class. Indeed, the people of those times might utter the same complaint as in our own times that the reins of political power were really in the hands of small groups of men.

Then again the judicial part of the system was subject to the same evil influences. Powerful barons would try to pervert the course of justice by appearing in the court with bodies of armed retainers at their backs.

However, about the middle of the fifteenth century the evil was brought to a crisis and was partly ended by the Wars of the Roses, during which the great barons engaged each other in deadly combat and thus so weakened their own position that they could no longer engross the enjoyment of political power.

265. **The Wars of the Roses** were caused by the deadly rivalry existing between the House of York and the House of Lancaster. Henry VI, of the House of Lancaster, was then reigning, and the weakness of his character furnished a fitting opportunity to Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York. Richard laid claim to the throne by the title of his more ancient descent, but his claim, however plausible, was scarcely valid in the

face of the fact that the House of Lancaster was ruling by consent of the English Parliament, which even from the times of the English Witan could make and unmake kings. However, so much discontent was caused by Henry's weak government and by the turbulence of the nobles that Richard thought he could successfully appeal to the people's craving for a strong and settled government.

This sanguinary struggle began in 1454 and lasted about thirty-five years, though only two out of these years were spent in hard fighting. Battles were fought and won on both sides and were characterized by great slaughter and merciless brutality. The decisive battles were the battle of Wakefield (1460), in which the Duke of York, was slain and his faction routed, the battle of St. Albans (1461), in which the king was utterly routed and after being deposed by Parliament, was succeeded by Edward IV, son of the slain Duke of York. Then came the battle of Towton (1461), in which the Lancastrians suffered an irretrievable defeat, and the position of Edward IV on the throne was finally secured. Even when the Earl of Warwick, who had been Edward's main supporter, turned against him and entered into an alliance with the Lancastrian leaders, Edward was still triumphant and at the battle of Tewkesbury (1471) again beat the Lancastrians, while Margaret, the Queen consort of Henry IV, was taken captive, and Henry VI himself perished in the tower.

266. **Results of the Wars of the Roses.**— The Wars of the Roses were fought almost exclusively between the great barons and their retainers. The great middle class had scarcely taken any part in them. The loss of life therefore had fallen almost exclusively on the barons and their retainers. The balance of power now remained between the king on the one hand, and the common people on the other. But the people were not yet alive to their changed position

and so the immediate effect of the Wars of the Roses was to make the king absolutely supreme. In fact, it seemed as though the dial of history had received a setback to the despotism of the Norman and Angevin kings. All classes of the community were dependent upon the king alone. The churchmen looked to him for the protection of their lands, the trading classes for the security of their property. Nor had the king any need to make the Parliament a partner in the functions of governing, for previous grants as well as the confiscated estates of the Lancastrians had already filled the royal treasury.

267. **Edward IV.**— Much, however, depended upon the character of himself, and Edward IV under a light and a gay exterior concealed profound political ability and determined ambition. He soon acted up to the situation. He reduced the functions of Parliament to registering lists of attainers against the Lancastrians. Then when his extravagance necessitated more money he not only asked for one-fifteenth of each person's movable goods no less than five times during the space of five years, but he also resumed the old feudal dues, and even fell back on benevolences, or forced gifts. In legal matters he was equally despotic. He introduced a severe treason act by which writings and even abstention from action might be used as evidence of constructive treason, and above all the odious use of torture was again introduced.

268. **Royal Despotism Only Temporary.**— And yet if we go below the surface, the evil was but temporary in its character. It was easier for the people to fight against the tyranny of one man than against the tyranny and misrule of many nobles with powerful bodies of men at their back. The despotism of the Yorkist kings, and the Tudor kings who

succeeded them was not an unmitigated evil; it introduced order where there had been chaos and gave to England a strong foreign policy, while the ground was also cleared for that great struggle between the king and the people which ended in procuring for England all the blessings of free constitutional government.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Importance of the Hundred Years' War — Remote and immediate causes of the Hundred Years' War — Motives of the two countries in going to war — Battles of Sluys and Crécy — Battle of Poitiers — Treaty of Bretigny — The war renewed in the South of France — English reverses — Arrival of Henry V, who wins the battle of Agincourt — English invasion of Normandy — Treaty of Troyes — Duke of Bedford as regent in France — French success under the Maid of Orleans — Account of the Lancastrian experiment in Normandy — English slowly driven out of France — End of the Hundred Years' War — Survey of the Hundred Years' War — Its results in France and England. Origin of the House of Hapsburg — Changes made in the German electors — Rudolph founder of the greatness of the House of Hapsburg — Henry VII of Luxemburg — His intervention in Italy — The same policy continued by Lewis the Bavarian — The failure of this policy — Reign of Charles IV — His extending the boundaries of Bohemia — His failure in Italy and elsewhere — Attitude of the Forest Cantons towards the House of Hapsburg — Battle of Morgarten — The German and Slav element in the Austrian dominions — John Huss and the IV Council of Constance — Weakening of the royal power in England and rise of democratic government — The various rights and privileges successfully asserted by Parliament — Democratic advance even in legal theories — Serious defects in the representative system — Defects in the judicial system — Causes of the Wars of the Roses — Battles of St. Albans, Towton and Tewkesbury — Important political results of the Wars of the Roses — Rise of royal despotism under Edward IV — A strong basis of democratic power still remains.

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CHAPTER XV

THE RENAISSANCE

269. **Meaning of the Term Renaissance.**— The word Renaissance means literally a re-birth and is used in the historical sense to denote the great mental, social, and moral revolution that began in the fifteenth century, during the bloodshed of the Hundred Years' War. There is a contradiction between the literal meaning and the actual use of the word. By the renaissance, or re-birth, writers generally mean the revival of the study of the ancient classics. But the movement denoted by the term renaissance meant much more than this. It meant a complete revolution in the ideas of men. For a few hundred years the individuals composing medieval society had been thinking, living, and acting along certain fixed and definite lines. Families from one generation to another had pursued the same line of trade; certain fixed courses of studies were prescribed in the universities and colleges; the arts of sculpture, painting, and music had been confined to certain rigid lines, and even in the world of philosophical and religious thought there were certain fixed traditions beyond which none ventured to stir. Medieval life had been moving in ruts from which it was suddenly lifted with terrific jolts. It is true that many at the time of the Renaissance began to cultivate the study of the ancient classics, but this was only one section of the great movement.

The eyes of men seem to have been suddenly opened, and their sympathies brought into touch with a new world revealed to their gaze. A corresponding restlessness seems to have agitated their inmost being. Not only the classics but the most abstract problems of science now drew their

attention. Not only architecture and painting but even the lesser accomplishments came in for a share of attention. Music, dancing, the art of conversation — all these seemed to open out fresh possibilities of beauty and enjoyment. In fact, the whole life of man underwent a kind of transformation which touched even the smallest actions of daily life.

Having described the Renaissance movement as a whole, we may now take up in detail its main branches, which are as follows: first, the revival of the classics; second, the impetus given to vernacular literature; third, architecture and sculpture; fourth, painting and the lesser arts.

270. **Exclusive Study of the Letter of the Classics.**— It would be a great mistake to suppose that the study of the classics was altogether neglected even during the worst periods of the middle ages. The Latin authors, like Cicero and Seneca, were studied, and there is evidence to show that Virgil and Ovid were in frequent use. Moreover, copies of the classic writings were made at the cost of a great amount of time and labor. But the Latin authors were studied not so much for what they said as for the manner in which they said it. The worldly shrewdness of Horace, the fervor of patriotism and the beauty of nature as portrayed in the lines of Virgil, and the restless questionings of Cicero and Seneca — all these were lost sight of and the attention was fixed mainly on the verbal text. Students sought for the art-form only and not for the art-content. To them, the vocabulary, the methods of sentence construction, or at most skilfulness of argument, were supposed to be the only and best fruit of studying the ancient authors.

With regard to the study of Greek it must be admitted that there was a general ignorance of even the written text. Only here and there would the study be pursued by some isolated scholar.

271. **Excessive Specialization.**— The study of the classics, therefore, during the middle ages failed to receive the interest and support that it deserved. And yet in the universities, there could be found a great deal of mental activity, for distinguished professors still lectured and were listened to by bands of eager students from most distant parts. The root of the evil was that there was too much specialization. General culture was neglected, and too early and too much attention was paid to certain lucrative studies, as theology and law. Perhaps the same evil of specialization may be said to exist even in our time, when the classics are beginning to be ignored and the more lucrative subjects of science and engineering are receiving paramount attention.

272. **Study of the Classics for Culture.**— The movement that took place during the end of the middle ages meant the abandonment of specialization for broad general culture, including, of course, the study of the classics. And so from thenceforth we find the Latin authors studied because they seemed to bring one into actual contact with the world in all its beauty and attractiveness. Now it was through the Latin authors that men were brought back to nature and the deep problems of life. Rich ladies of the time, such as the duchess Elizabeth Este, would sing Virgil's lines to impassioned music, and men would discourse in urgent tones the pagan ideas regarding the immortality of the soul. No doubt this sympathy with the ideas and emotions of pagan authors was accompanied by special danger. But amongst the advocates of the new classic learning we must distinguish carefully two classes. First, those who merely wanted to expand the study of the classics, not diverging, however, from the old lines of thought and of education. Second, there was the pagan school that wished to subvert altogether the hitherto accepted order of things. The first was the Christian school of humanists; the

second was the pagan school, and fortunately this was confined only to Italy. But even in Italy there was a considerable number who belonged to the Christian school. Dante, the greatest of Italian poets, and withal an orthodox son of the Church, and overflowing with faith in the supernatural, was one of those most intimately affected by the influence of Virgil. To Virgil he addresses these words: "Thou art my author and my master thou." And Dante during his awful journey through the Inferno surrenders himself completely to the guidance of this illustrious pagan.

273. **The Study of Greek.**— The study of Latin therefore, may be said to have undergone a revival inasmuch as not only the letter of the text but the spirit began to occupy a large share of attention. But the revival of the study of Greek was still more complete, for here even the letter of the text had been practically forgotten and was now again restored in Italy and spread over all Europe.

274. **The Causes of Enthusiasm for Greek Learning.**— Various causes contributed to the enthusiasm for Greek learning. No doubt, the capture of the Greek capital, Constantinople, by the Turks, sent out a great number of Greeks exiles who wandered all over Europe spreading with them the knowledge of Greek. But even before this date, there were professors of the Greek language who enjoyed great repute and popularity. Florence was then the great center of Greek culture. There, under the influence of the first magistrate, Lorenzo the Magnificent, learned Greeks like Demetrius Chalcondyles taught the letter and imparted the logical beauty of the Greek tongue to throngs of eager students, and it was at this sacred fire that were lighted the torches that spread throughout the rest of Europe an enthusiasm for Greek.

275. **Study of Greek in England.**— In England, however, the reception of the Greek culture, was exceedingly slow and reluctant. The universities especially seemed unwilling to open their doors to the movement. The fact was that while they were conscious that the intellectual future was intimately connected with the enthusiastic cult of the Greek authors, they feared it was something that they could not easily assimilate.

The first Englishman who studied Greek was William Selling, Prior of Christ Church, and it was he who afterwards inspired such propagandists as Linacre, Grocyn, and Latimer. It was at Oxford that the first formal lectures on Greek were delivered by the able Grocyn and Linacre. Then Cambridge followed the example, mainly owing to the zeal of Bishop Fisher, the same bishop who under Henry VIII was martyred for his denial of the supremacy of the king over the Church. At Cambridge the study of Greek was perhaps slower but more secure than at Oxford, and it was in Cambridge that was founded the first professorship of Greek. Among the most noted professors was Erasmus from Rotterdam, who had been invited to England by More and Colet, and who speedily became one of the most zealous champions of the new study.

The new movement, however, did not make its way without meeting bitter opposition. Even to this day the rival party names Greeks and Trojans of the public school boys recall the days of the early sixteenth century when the humanists had to fight their way against the "Trojans," the nickname given to the sworn foes of Greek culture. There even took place a short reaction in the direction of the old learning. But the Church zealously upheld the new movement and Cardinal Wolsey, the king's chancellor, even made the study of Greek compulsory at Oxford University. Much of the opposition sprung from the deep-rooted English conservatism and its aversion for more outward brilliancy. But when the

universities saw that the new Greek culture was producing not only leaves but good solid fruit, they no longer resisted but placed themselves at the head of the movement. Their acceptance of the humanistic revival was thus deliberate and being more restrained produced more solid and durable results than in those countries that were guided rather by the passionate instinct of the movement.

276. **Patriotism and the Universities.**— The ardent love of nature and intense curiosity regarding the deepest problems of life that brought about the revival of the classics also gave rise to vernacular literatures. National character like individual character tends to express itself in its own way. Before the sixteenth century, national life had been dormant. Nations had been so busied with the actual problems of political existence that they had little time to think of anything else. But the Renaissance meant the rise of the national consciousness, the rise of an intense and ardent patriotism of a reflexive kind. From this point of view, therefore, it resembled the Augustan Age, the writers of which seem so brimful of the majesty and pathos of their native Italian life. This was especially the case in England where Spenser and Shakespeare were basking in the rays of Elizabethan greatness and it was not absent even in Italy though there it was not so dominant. But besides this vein

Erasmus, the most famous Greek and Latin scholar of his time. Born at Rotterdam about 1467; died 1526.

of patriotism, which gave a peculiar character to each native production, there were always peculiarities of national character which prompted each nation to adopt its own views of the problems of life.

In Italy the movement in the direction of a vernacular literature concentrated itself round the names of three great writers, Petrach, Dante and Boccaccio.

277. **Petrarch** was born at Arezzo in Italy, in the year 1304, His father belonged to the same political party as Dante, and both were banished at the same time. Petrarch even from his earliest years showed signs that the fever of the renaissance was in his very blood. When still in his teens he loved to read the sonorous sentences of Cicero, though unable to grasp their meaning, yet his ear was charmed by their stately flowing rhythm. The early promise was not nipped in the bud, and when Petrarch came to maturity he appeared as the foremost pioneer of Latin culture and rendered invaluable service by his zeal in discovering the most correct edition of the ancient authors.

But Petrarch will be remembered not only for the work which he prized most but for that which he held in least esteem. His Italian poems and especially his sonnets, were steps in hitherto unknown paths of literature. His use of the Italian vernacular revealed to his countrymen the peculiar beauties of their own tongue as a vehicle of literary expression, and his sonnets, the first of this species of literary composition, had a far-reaching influence on the vernacular writers of other countries.

278. **Dante,** the greatest of Italian poets, born in 1265, perceived to the full the boundless possibilities of the tongue of the people. His "Divina Commedia" not only lifts him up to the rank of the world's greatest poets, but reveals at

the same time the inexhaustible beauties of expression, flexibility, strength and majesty of the Italian vernacular. The very variety and breadth of knowledge shown in this master poem, its acquaintance with philosophy, theology, and even science, sufficiently demonstrates that the popular tongue, despised by Petrarch, and admired by Dante, was adapted to the expression of any thought in any branch of knowledge. To Dante belongs the honor of being the first literary architect to discern the nature of a hitherto rejected material and of creating out of it an unrivaled masterpiece — a masterpiece that has successfully borne translation into nearly every European tongue and that touches the chords that vibrate deepest in the heart of man.

Dante.

279. **Boccaccio.**— What Dante was in the field of verse Boccaccio was in the field of prose; his Decameron or "Hundred Tales" being the earliest prose work written in pure Italian. Boccaccio was also enamored with the new classic learning, but unfortunately his morals sometimes sank below the precepts of even the Latin philosophers whom he so much admired. His want of restraint appears even in his writings and the Decameron is sometimes marred by the grossest details. In his later years, however, he repented, and the sober seriousness of his later writings testify to the change in his heart.

The "Divina Commedia" became the favorite subject of his discourses, and his commentary on the Inferno, though less brilliant than the Decameron, has been much esteemed.

280. **Influence of the Italian Renaissance on English Literature.**— The names of Petrarch and Boccaccio ought to be interesting even to English readers, since the wave of Italian Renaissance affected English life and literature. The pioneers of the Renaissance of the English vernacular, such men as Wyatt, Surrey, Spenser, and Shakespeare, either learned directly from Italian models, or showed that they had been affected by contact with Italian scenery, life, and manners. The Italian Renaissance gave to English writers new forms of expression, and greater precision and polish. It did something still more and created for the English poet an altogether fresh atmosphere. But the English writers were not servilely dependent on the Italian. They had the sense to shake off the defects of their originals. Indeed, the petty conceits, the complex imagery and artificiality of some of Petrarch's productions were distasteful to the English mind. The earlier English writers like Wyatt may sometimes have been too much under sway of foreign influences, but men like Spenser and Shakespeare entirely transmuted the original by the magic glow of their own peculiar genius. The writings of the palmy days of the English Renaissance throb with the very intensity of national feeling and patriotism. The greatness of England's queen, the victories of the English naval heroes, and the carrying of the English flag beyond the seas, all combined to arouse national consciousness and pride. Even the very style is purged of foreign dross. In Spenser we find not only the peculiar charm and beauty of antique English, but the very dantiest and choicest words and modes of expression. While Shakespeare is the first writer since the Old English Period to assert with overwhelming power the grandeur and

rugged strength of the old Teutonic spirit, he was more English than even Dante was Italian. His whole work is an epic of the English nation, and it is in him that we find the English character in all its length and breadth.

281. **The Renaissance and the Art of Painting.**— It was in the art of painting that the Renaissance found its fullest and richest expression. The very essence and root of the whole movement of the Renaissance was a passionate desire to be brought into touch with the world of the senses, a world, however, that needed to be idealized and suffused with the glow of imagination. For this purpose no art seemed to be so adequate as that of painting. In the picture the real world seems recreated with intensified color and form.

In Italy, there rose various schools of painting each with special characteristics and merits of its own. This was only the natural result of the political condition and past history of Italy. Political life there had no one common center but several centers. Each city had a special political and social life of its own. It was only natural therefore that this individuality of each city should also call forth individuality of artistic expression. The different schools of Italian painting are well known and their specimens are found in every museum. A partial acquaintance therefore with their history, characteristics and foremost exponents might reasonably be demanded of any student of history.

282. **The Florentine School.**— This was the chief school of Italian painting. It is distinguished for its high moral feeling, its adequate treatment of historical subjects, and the utter truthfulness that pervades every detail. In the material composition of its pictures we find a remarkable power of expressing movement, and for imparting to the figures a conspicious grandeur and dignity of expression. Perhaps the

most well known of the painters of this school was Fra Angelico, whose pictures occupy such prominent place in the National Gallery of London, the Uffizi Gallery in Florence, and above all, in St. Mark's Convent in Florence. Experts may perhaps complain of a certain want of science and a visible weakness in portraying rapid movement or niceties of anatomical form, but these defects are more than compensated by his wonderful variety of human expression, and for his angels which are of the very purest types.

The Siennese School is noted for the beauty of its female heads, also for its clear and transparent coloring. There may not perhaps be much originality in the grouping of the figures, but on the other hand, there is expressed great depth of feeling. The "Assumption of the Blessed Virgin" by Matteo, in the National Gallery of London, admirably illustrates these different traits of the Siennese School.

283. **The Umbrian School.**— The style of this school, though occasionally somewhat marred by mere prettiness and even affectation, yet surpasses in real excellence the style of the other schools. The Perugian branch contains perhaps the best and most representative men of the Umbrian School of painters. This school took its rise in the very cradle of religious enthusiasm, in the spot made venerable by the labors of St. Francis and his friars. And as the Franciscan movement gave rise to an outburst of Christian song and Divine melodies so also it called into existence a new and exalted style of painting. Purity of soul, fervent longings, and entire abandonment to enthusiastic tenderness are its predominant traits.

284. **Pietro Della Francesca** (1415), in his "Baptism of Our Lord" was one of the earliest to body forth the highest qualities of the new school. In him we find material skill of

the highest order. His mastery of the laws of aerial perspective, and his acquaintance with the properties of light and shade are manifest even to the untrained. The same picture is also suggestive of the most intense realism and subjective emotions. The sense of beauty, however, in some people might be offended by his peculiar type of heads, which with their broad faces, wide nostrils, and meeting eyebrows rather resemble the eastern type of features.

285. **Perugino** was born in 1446 and from many points of view is even a still abler exponent of the principles of the Umbrian school. He was past master in all the technical qualities of painting. His perspective could scarcely be improved. A peculiar grace and softness pervades every line of his work. Nothing could ever surpass the beauty of his heads, that express either radiant youth or any form of ardent expression; even in depicting mere material things, he shows himself thoroughly proficient in his employment of color. His limitations must be sought for in other ways, perhaps his inability to deal with dramatic subjects, and a certain monotony of expression. An altar piece in St. Dominic's Church, at Fiesole, and a picture of a Madonna with two saints, at Cremona, are best illustrative of his method of treatment.

286. **The Venetian School.**— Venice, in art, as in many other things, occupied a unique position in Italy. Venice had been always more or less under Byzantine influence, and she had always opposed any opposite tendencies. Pictures of the Venetian school therefore are easily discernible by peculiar melting softness, and by the long and easy lines of their drapery. Venice was also extremely aristocratic in character and her paintings display a corresponding love for splendor and elegance.

Among the foremost painters of the Venetian school are

the two brothers, Bartholomeo and Antonio Vivarini. Bartholomeo especially had a powerful and original mind, such as would be likely in any art to strike out on new lines.

The Venetian school displays some of the characteristics of the later style of Renaissance painting. Its colors are unique for their fluidity and transparency and it also set the fashion for a new material in the art, by the use of oil colors. Another feature of distinction in the Venetian school is its more abundant use of accessories, especially the landscape

The Last Supper.

which now assumes a dominant position. It is also fond of introducing such accessories as angels singing or playing on musical instruments or bearing festoons of flowers.

287. **The Lombard School.**— Leonardo de Vinci, born in 1452, is the giant exponent of this school. Though touched by the classic movement he was no servile imitator of the antique and he well knew how to imitate nature without sacrificing his own originality or independence of imagination. It is said that genius consists in taking pains, and Leonardo seems a fit example of the definition. It was not the sudden stroke of inspiration that made him great so much as his un-

tiring labor at retouching and correcting. His masterpiece is the "Last Supper," still on the wall of the refectory in the Convent of St. Maria della Grazie, in Milan. This picture is sadly battered by time and damp, but the mind at once fills up all the gaps, and discerns the full intention of the author. The whole composition is marvelous for its simplicity and truthfulness of details.

The above are the principal schools of Italian painting, but outside these, there are certain great artists who, being of transcendent genius, have developed quite an individuality of their own.

288. **Raphael,** born in 1483, was a disciple of Perugino, and shows in his paintings all the tender sentimentality of the Umbrian school. Together with this, he also exhibits marvelous individuality of character and a careful study of detail. His Madonnas are numerous and show that he was influenced by more than one school of Italian art. His "Coronation of the Virgin" in the Vatican breathes the spirit of the Umbrian school. But two other pictures of the Madonna, one at Munich, the other at Berlin, show clear traces of Florentine influence. It must be admitted that there is rather a loss of spirituality, but on the other hand he gains in accession of technical strength.

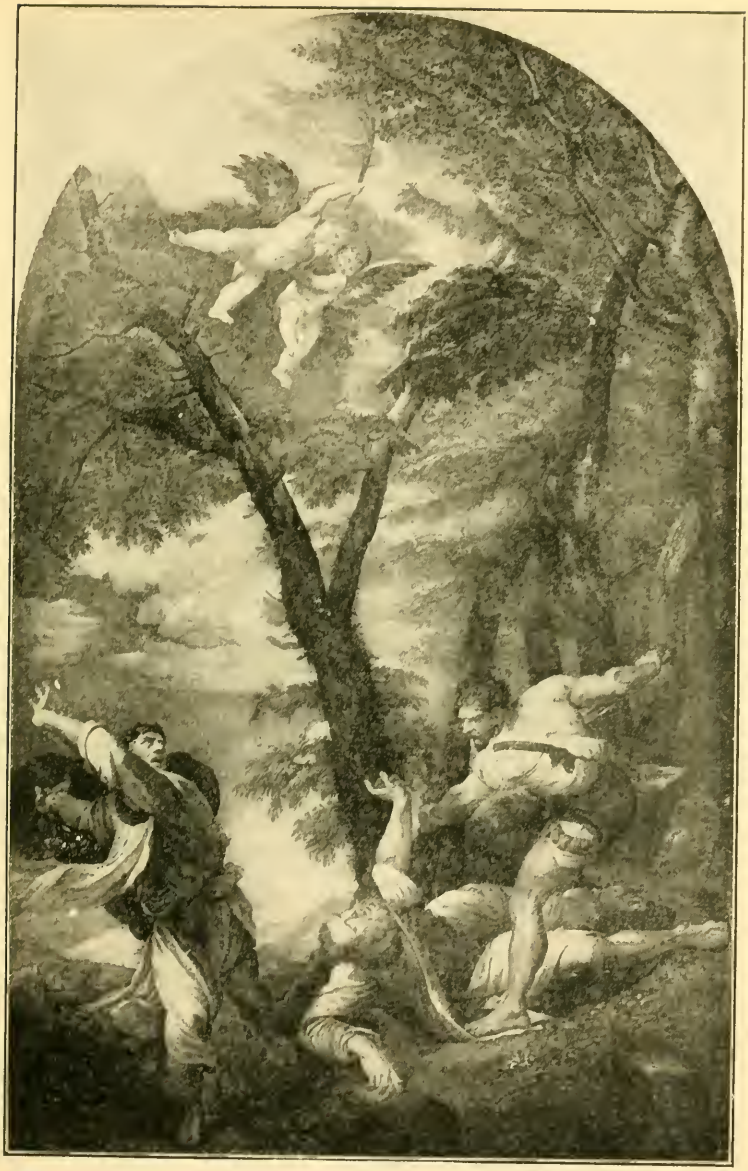
His most famous works are the frescoes in the stanze, or living rooms of the Vatican, at the time of Leo X. Amongst them are the famous allegories of the "Disputa" and "School of Athens." They show his marvelous gift of reducing abstract thoughts to vivid, concrete images, and while retaining the beauties of the old style somewhat foreshadow the improvements of the new.

289. **Titian** (1477) though reared in the Venetian school soon developed traits of his own. We still see in his pictures

the gorgeous coloring and stately forms of the Venetian school but there are other excellences as well. There is a great deal of ordinary human enjoyment to be derived from his pictures. There may be less of the exalted and sublime, but there is more that is in sympathy with our every day life. He loved to paint agreeable landscapes, the beauty of women, the dignity of man, and the artlessness of childhood. Two of his very celebrated pictures are kept in the Louvre Gallery, and one of them, "Peter Martyr," shows an extraordinary power of representing sudden and violent action.

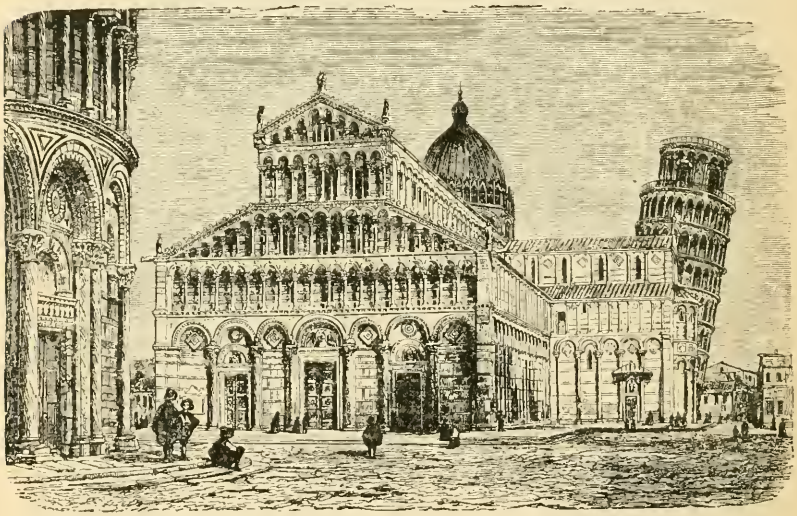
290. **The Basilica Type of Architecture.**— Until the time of the Renaissance the two styles of architecture that prevailed in Europe were the Romanesque and the Gothic. The Romanesque style had begun in Italy about the seventh century. It was essentially an altered and adapted form of the old Roman Basilica style. The main features of the Basilica style are already sufficiently familiar in such churches as St. Paul without the walls, and of St. Agnes in Rome. The ordinary feature of the Basilica is its shape — that of an oblong rectangle. Running up the middle is a broad central nave separated from the aisles by rows of columns. This during pagan times terminated in a raised tribune at the end of the building where the Prætor, or Roman judge, used to sit. Naturally, this part of the building was altered to suit Christian worship. Instead of the judge, the Christian altar was the center of attention and this was placed in the tribune which stood out of the main portion of the building and was covered with a semicircular vault.

291. **Romanesque Style.**— It was from this Basilica style that the Romanesque style directly sprang. But both the materials and even the shape of the Basilica style became considerably altered. The vaulted roofs were constructed of



Titan's Peter Martyr.

solid masonry, while stone or brick piers were used for the columns. By degrees, even the sanctuary end of the building became so altered in length as to make the whole resemble the shape of the Latin cross. Other new features were the use of buttresses, or architectural supports, to the wall, and massive round arches. There still remained some elements of the old Roman style but these became so modified and added to



The church and leaning tower at Pisa. The former was built in the 11th century. The tower, which is of white marble, 178½ feet high, was begun in 1174 and finished in 1350. From its summit Galileo first determined experimentally the laws of falling bodies.

that the net result is entirely new and original. A fine example of the Romanesque is the church at Pisa in Italy with its leaning bell-tower.

292. **Influence of Renaissance on Architecture.**— The Renaissance movement affected architecture as it affected other art by returning directly or indirectly to the models of classic antiquity. Unfortunately, this seems to have been the only

art that in consequence suffered any detriment. Many of the early innovators indulged in servile imitation of Roman outward forms and ornaments without realizing the inward thought and principle from which they first rose. However, the new style did contain elements of beauty, and various artists strove not unsuccessfully to combine the merits of the old style with the new needs of modern civilization. Naturally, Florence with its love of the beautiful in all its forms and its capacity for individualism lead the way.

The main characteristic of the new style was the different use to which its columns were put. In the Greek and Roman style, the column was merely for purposes of decoration; the walls were of such intrinsic solidity that they disdained any outward support. But in the Renaissance style, the column became a necessary support to the building.

293. **Brunelleschi.**— The first pioneer of the Renaissance style was Brunelleschi, born at Florence in 1379. He spent a long time in Rome where he studied the ancient styles, and on his return to Florence he constructed for himself an entirely new design. The greatest monument of his is the cupola over the Cathedral in Florence. In the order of time this is the first of all great cupolas and in the order of merit, it is surpassed only by that of St. Peter's.

294. **Bramante.**— Another and still greater exponent of the new style is Bramante, who was in architecture what Leonardo de Vinci and Raphael were in the world of painting. Like Brunelleschi he spent a considerable time in Rome in the exclusive study of the monuments of antiquity. The most important sphere of his labors being the numerous fragments in Hadrian's villa, fragments of which now for the most part are scattered throughout the different world mu-

seums. It is unfortunate that only fragments remain of the work of his genius. The present Cathedral of St. Peter's was begun by him, but subsequent changes introduced by Michael Angelo and his successors completely altered the original design. If Bramante had only been permitted to finish what he had begun, St. Peter's instead of seeming smaller than it actually is, would have appeared even greater. Another advantage would have been that the aisles would have stretched without interruption from one end of the building to the other.

295. **Renaissance and Domestic Architecture.**— The Renaissance style also introduced important changes even into domestic architecture. The houses of this period had to serve a twofold purpose, for while being intended to serve as places of habitation they might occasionally have to be turned into temporary fortresses. This explains the massiveness of the walls and the narrow lower windows of the house of this period. Also, quite peculiar features were the courtyard in the center of the building surrounded by a columnar arcade, and the external staircases.

The wave of this new movement affected architecture all over Europe. In France there rose the Chateaux of Blois and Chaumont, while the Hotel des Invalides in Paris and certain portions of the Louvre afford good specimens of the style. In Germany, too, castles and palaces were built in the same style;— the castle of Heidelberg with its picturesque ivy-colored walls being still one of the most imposing ruins of Germany.

Even in England the Cathedral of St. Paul in London shows the influence of the Renaissance style. The exterior front with its two stories, is classical in form and the modern reredos follows the Italian Renaissance style with its peculiar blend of classicism and emotionalism.

296. **Renaissance Influence on Sculpture.**— There seems to be some difference of opinion as to how far the influence of classic antiquity is responsible for the remarkable merit of the sculpture of the Renaissance. It certainly does not seem very apparent in any of the finer qualities of execution. Perhaps it would be truer to say that the Renaissance sculptors were influenced only indirectly by the classic element. They certainly created an entirely new style — a style which was at once highly intellectual and intensely emotional.

297. **The Pisani.**— The first artists to appear of this type were the Pisani. Indeed, Nicholas Pisani was the founder of the new school. He was born in 1205 and soon showed signs of great talent. At the age of fifteen he was employed by Frederick II in some very important work, and before long specimens of his genius were multiplying in such towns as Pisa, Siena, and Orvieto. His great gift seems to have been the handling of delicate subjects, and the representation of beautiful figures. But the "Last Judgment" in the Cathedral at Siena showed that he also not unsuccessfully dealt even with subjects requiring grandeur of conception and forcible details.

298. **Donatello.**— An artist that appealed perhaps still more to the popular imagination was Donatello, born in 1386. Like many other sculptors of the time he also practiced the professions of painting and architecture; but he specialized in sculpture. He seems to have been a man gifted with keen intelligence and energy of imagination and it is these two qualities that tend to give to his work such intense individuality. His creations like those of Shakespeare are real. There is little doubt that what endeared him most both to the medieval and modern mind was his statue of St. George, the type of knight *sans peur et sans reproche*. In this statue are

vividly portrayed the immortality of youth and strength of purity. The quiet but firm attitude, the expression of alertness, and the ardent glance — all call to mind the associations that cluster round the memory of St. George.

Statue of Moses by Michael Angelo

229. **Lucca dela Robbia.**— But of all the sculptors of this period there is none whose productions are so universal as those of Lucca della Robbia. The very name recalls to one's mind the new material that was invented by him and called after his name. This material consisted of ordinary terra cotta covered over with a peculiar kind of varnish which imparted both hardness and durability. But even from the point of view of form and artistic beauty Lucca was pre-eminent as is shown by his two works in the gallery at Florence and by "The Coronation of Our Lady" at Sienna. The simplicity of his composition and strong emotionalism cannot but impress even the ordinary beholder.

300. **Michael Angelo.**— Last in the list of sculptors, but perhaps first in merit comes Michael Angelo. For grandeur and sublimity none are his equals. In his works there is a startling titanic force that holds the imagination spell-bound.

Silent force and power was what he learned to express. His statues of Moses, of Lorenzo de Medici, and of David sufficiently illustrate some of his remarkable powers. He had, it is true, some defects, defects that more than the merits seem to have drawn the attention of his imitators. Such for example as the affected attitude of some of his figures, and also here and there a deficiency of taste. But these are more than compensated by his originality of invention and his complete mastery of the principles of his art.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Definition of the Renaissance — The extent of its influence — Method of the study of the classics during the middle ages — Excessive specialization in the studies — Change in the methods of the study of the classics — The new classes of humanists — Italy the center of Greek culture — Greek introduced into England — Opposition in England to the study of the Greek — Causes of Vernacular literature — Patriotism blended with the rise of vernacular literature — Petrarch — Dante — Boccaccio — The English Renaissance writers borrowing from the Italian writers — Influence of the Renaissance on the art of painting — Causes of the different schools of painting in Italy — Florentine school — Siennese School — Umbrian School — Venetian School — Lombard School — Raphael — Titian — The Basilican and Romanesque schools of architecture — Influence of the Renaissance on architecture — Characteristics of the new style — Brunelleschi, Bramante — Influence of Renaissance even on domestic architecture — Examples of the new style — Influence of Renaissance on Sculpture — The two Pisani — Donatello — Lucca della Robbia — Michael Angelo.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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CAMBRIDGE, *Modern History;* ARMSTRONG, *Renaissance; Lorenzo de Medici and Florence in the Fifteenth Century;* BURCKHARDT, *Renaissance*
CAMBRIDGE, *Modern History;* ARMSTRONG, *Renaissance; Lorenzo de Medici and Florence in the Fifteenth Century;* BURCKHARDT, *Renaissance in Italy;* SHERAN, *Handbook of Literary Criticism;* ROBINSON AND ROLFE, *Petrarch;* ARNOLD, *Manual of English Literature;* PUTNAM, *Books and their Makers;* PATER, *Renaissance;* WOLTMANN AND WOERMAN, *History*

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CHAPTER XVI

REVIEW OF THE STATES OF EUROPE

France

301. Political Union.— We have seen that the Hundred Years' War had a remarkable regenerating effect on France. The old local barriers and prejudices were submerged under the necessity of fighting a common foe. The feudal spirit began to die out with the slaughter of the barons and there now appeared instead the virtue of patriotism. The mission of Joan of Arc had indeed been triumphantly accomplished.

But France, though liberated, had still to be consolidated and organized, and this task was reserved for another maiden whose name ought not to be forgotten. When Charles VII after the peace of Arras relapsed into indolence and vice, it was Agnes Sorel that aroused him from his bed of vice in order to live over again for the good of France. He dismissed his base favorites and assembled round him good and sagacious counsellors — men like Etienne Chevalier, of distinguished administrative capacity, or like Jacques Coeur, whose large fortune enabled Charles to make his final successful stand against the English.

302. Triumph of the Monarchy.— At the same time, the triumph of France meant also the triumph of the monarchy. The whole strength of the nation was at the king's disposal. By the end of Charles VII's reign we find all the great means of government entirely in his hands. The large standing army was his, and it was his agents that collected the tax for the support of the army. The laws that were made on so

great a scale and uniformity now began to emanate entirely from royal authority.

303. **Louis XI.**— Charles VII died in 1461 and was succeeded by his eldest son Louis XI. The name of Louis XI has been made familiar both by novelist and dramatist. He was a man of strange and violent contrasts. He was brave, yet abjectly superstitious; a man of far-reaching foresight, yet sometimes blind to what was under his very feet; able to mould the destinies of France and of Europe, yet exhibiting the most extraordinary meanness both of mind and of character.

And yet this man with his supple and sagacious cunning managed to lay the foundations of royal despotism. He had spent his youth in the Dauphiny and had there studied to some purpose the devious ways of Italian diplomacy. The result was shown in his set purpose to obtain his ends by artifice rather than by force.

304. **Conflict With the Nobles.**— The greatest difficulty he had to meet rose from the powerful and independent nobles whom he had grievously offended. In the fourth year of his reign they revolted against him. The ringleaders were the Dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, the Counts Dumont and Foix. The Duke of Burgundy from his vast possessions and great influence was regarded as the commander-in-chief. The number of insurgents was superior to that of the royal forces, but Louis had the advantage of some pieces of artillery still in those days a new invention. An indecisive battle was fought at Monte l'Lery. Louis then entered Paris, the capital, and partly by flattery, partly by bribes, won over the Parisians to his side. It was not long before Louis, by the same artful diplomacy, succeeded in foiling his adversaries. He negotiated separately with each one of them,

and eventually the towns on the river Somme were his only loss.

305. **Power of the Duchy of Burgundy.**— But the failure of the coalition of the nobles only brought into prominence Louis' most deadly enemy. This was Charles Duke of Burgundy. By the end of the fifteenth century the Duchy of Burgundy had arisen to an eminence that might well excite the ambitions of so ardent a temperament as that of Charles the Bold. The Duchy of Burgundy had been given to Philip the IV, son of John II. To this, Philip was able to add by marriage Flanders and Artois. Nor was he content with the good fortune of circumstances, but he also acquired the important and flourishing provinces of Brabant, Holland, and Zealand.

306. **Policy of Charles the Bold.**— When Philip died and Charles the Bold succeeded to his father's vast dominions he soon found that the policy of Burgundian expansion meant open opposition to the policy of the French monarchy — a policy of intense centralization. It was for this reason that Charles headed the league of the Public Weal against Louis and even when the league fell to pieces he still continued the opposition. But the energy of Charles was no match for the quiet diplomacy of Louis. The two pivots upon which the success of Charles' policy rested were an alliance with the English and the marriage of his daughter with Charles of Guienne, Louis' brother. But the English were bought off by Louis and the intended marriage was frustrated by the death of Charles of Guienne and the consequent reversion of the Duchy of Guienne to the French crown.

The French policy of Charles of Burgundy thus fell to the ground. But Charles sought for some compensation by a strong German policy. Some of Charles' possessions lay in

Germany and he now sought to build out of them a mighty empire. But here again he was foiled. His interview with the emperor Frederick III, by whom he had hoped to be crowned king, came to a ridiculous termination. But by a peculiar irony of fate it was the Swiss, whom Charles so much despised, that dealt the death blow to all his schemes.

307. **Defeat and Death of Charles.**— While Charles was besieging the town of Neuss on the Elbe, the Swiss invaded Burgundy. The insult filled him with a thirst for revenge. Hastily taking the field against them, he was badly defeated at the two battles of Granson and Morat. Still undaunted he tried to recover the town of Nancy, capital of Lorraine, and in doing so received a fatal wound.

The removal of Charles (1477) relieved Louis of the great obstacle to his schemes of expansion and centralization. Before his death he succeeded in annexing to the French crown the Duchy of Burgundy on the East, and the province of Roussilon in the southwest, which gave France a strong frontier on the side of the Pyrenees. His foreign policy also scored a success in his alliance with the Swiss, now a powerful military nation

308. **Social Progress.**— The reign of Louis, in spite of his own personal defects, was also advantageous to the internal prosperity of the kingdom. He improved the means of communication by constructing canals and roads, he endowed universities and in many places established printing presses. Promotion was made possible to the lower classes of society and important offices were not the monopoly of noble blood, but were made dependent upon talent and ability.

309. **Charles VIII.**— Louis died in 1483 and was succeeded by Charles VIII, a boy little more than thirteen years old.

The guardianship of the king's person, together with the task of government, devolved upon his sister Anna of Beaujeu, a talented woman who ably guided the monarchy through many dangers, until the king became of age.

Germany

310. **German Disunion.**— During the later middle ages, Germany as a state had no existence. The term "The Germanies" used by the French would have been far more appropriate. It was split up into an indefinite number of petty duchies and principalities, each governed by its own separate ruler. Sometimes even a single castle and a village nestling at its foot would constitute a separate state, asserting for itself all the prerogatives of sovereignty.

At first sight there would seem to be certain elements which if taken advantage of might have brought about the unity of these petty states into a united nation. There was, first of all, the emperor, who had all the majesty and prestige that could possibly be derived from long ages of custom and veneration. But unfortunately the energy of the emperor had been generally wasted on fruitless schemes in Italy, or in expanding the personal hereditary possessions of the House of Hapsburg. Moreover, there appeared no emperor endowed with any dominating personality like, for example, Bismarck, who by sheer force of will could bring together the scattered units of the empire. Another possible element of unity was the German diet, in which were assembled the seven electors, the princes of the empire, lay and ecclesiastic, and the representatives from the towns. But here also the diet, or parliament was more a name than a reality. Its methods of procedure were tedious and cumbersome. Most of the time was spent in discussing titles of precedence and empty formalities, while the real business was neglected.

311. **Frederick III.**— Such was the condition of the empire when Frederick III succeeded to the crown. He was a man whose personal appearance harmonized with his inward character. He had stolid, heavy features, with a protruding underlip, and he was slow and heavy in all his actions. Energy and force of initiative seem to have been wanting in him, and he was adverse to undertakings involving extraordinary effort. His minister was Caspar Schlick, whose merits were above his fame. Yet even he scarcely did more than conceal the incompetence of his master.

Some effort, however, was made to promote the social and material prosperity of the empire, and even to render more easy its much needed unity. The greater and lesser estates were brought together into circles, while the members of the ecclesiastical orders were united with those of the knights and of the cities into provincial diets. At the same time there was established among the cities something that resembled a co-operative system.

But these efforts were apparently unavailing. The groups were formed but there was in them no interior organic life. The experiment somewhat resembled that of certain chemists who tried to form a living body by merely bringing together certain inanimate elements.

312. **Results of German Disunion.**— It was not long before the evil results of German division became apparent. Italy had already gone from its sphere of influence, the Swiss Cantons had already revolted from their Hapsburg rulers, while the Teutonic Knights were rapidly losing their territory in northeast Germany to Poland, and, more than all, important possessions in the west had been ceded, either voluntarily or by force, to France and Burgundy.

313. **Efforts at Reform.**— In the face of these dangers everyone was disposed to blame the emperor and a cry arose

for a reform. The emperor turned a deaf ear, either because he would not or could not adopt any practical expedient, and so the task of reform devolved upon the estates. Only one important step was the result. This was the Suabian League in 1488, formed of princes, knights and citizens, who constituted a board of arbitration to decide disputes.

Perhaps the most tangible success of Frederick's reign was the success with which he looked after the interests of his own family. He used his privilege as emperor to give to the house of Hapsburg the dignity of the archdukedom, while the marriage of his son Maximilian with Mary of Burgundy added considerably to the territorial possessions of his house.

314. **Maximilian.**— Frederick III died in 1493 and was succeeded by Maximilian.

The personality of Maximilian is interesting. Physically, he was endowed with great strength which was gracefully set off by the modesty of his bearing. He was a man of wide tastes and many accomplishments. He loved fine scenery and literature, and did his best to promote all branches of knowledge. It is said that he even pawned a valuable jewel in order to aid a journey of scientific discovery, and so untiring and widespread were his efforts that he might even be said to have founded throughout Germany a society of history and archæology. Much also might be said of his own mental proficiency. At the present day in the Venice Library can still be seen some of his works on such subjects as history, genealogy, heraldry, battle-arms, and architecture. Together with all this he was a thorough linguist, conversing fluently in no fewer than seven tongues.

315. **The Administration of Justice.**— Under the guidance of his minister Eberhard, he tried to bring about greater union in Germany by dividing Germany into ten circles. This was

clearly in imitation of the Suabian league, and unfortunately was attended by the same negative results.

Whatever internal reform was effected in Germany during his reign must be attributed mainly to the action of the Estates under their leader Berthold of Mainz. A general tax called "The Common Penny" was imposed, the amount of the tax depending upon the proportion of population in each place. The Supreme Court of Justice which hitherto had followed the emperor from place to place, thus delaying the administration of justice, now met always in one definite locality. Even the very members of this Court were to be appointed by the diet, no longer by the emperor. The only influence still retained by his imperial majesty was his appointment of the President of the Court.

Even these reforms, however, did not produce the desired effect. If the emperor had been willing to co-operate heartily in this diminution of his powers, there would still have remained the root cause of the entire evil, namely, the disunion of Germany. The Council of Regency which was then formed and entrusted with the chief executive power likewise produced little practical result. The chief difficulty was not the misgovernment or tyranny of Maximilian so much as the paralyzed condition of the different German states.

316. **Foreign Policy of Maximilian.**— The importance of Maximilian's reign is to be found chiefly in his foreign policy. By his own previous marriage to Mary of Burgundy he had already secured Franche-Comte and the Netherlands. Another marriage was soon destined to procure for his House still greater advantage. In 1496 his son Philip married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, a union which prepared the way for the succession of Maximilian's grandson, Charles V, to the most powerful throne in Europe.

317. **Personal Traits.**— Maximilian died in 1519. He was one of the most interesting of the members of the Hapsburg family. He was full of activity, always devising new schemes. There was also a peculiar vein of medieval devotion in his character, for which among so many other things he managed to find room. For example, in writing to his daughter Mary, he hopes that when he has passed away he will become a canonized saint and that she will have the consolation of worshipping before his shrine. His most important schemes sometimes fell through in a way which quite brought out the want of business-like grit in his disposition. He was even visiting the town of Inspruck in the Austrian Tyrol for the purpose of carrying out some important state business. Suddenly he was compelled to take his departure from sheer inability to defray his hotel expenses.

Yet the character of Maximilian is attractive even in its quaintness, and he will always remain as the most important landmark dividing off the medieval from the modern history of the House of Hapsburg.

Italy

318. **Peculiar Characteristics of Italian History.**— The history of Italy during this period bears rather a striking resemblance to the history of Ancient Greece. In Greece, there was no one individual state but a collection of small city states; so in Italy there was no common rule or government extending over the whole land but merely a collection of city states. And these, like human beings, had an intense individuality of their own. Each city state had its own past history and peculiar environment, its peculiar sympathies and repulsions, and each followed its own particular calling or profession. Milan, for example, was a banking city, Padua and Bologna were mere university centers, while Venice devoted

whatever energy was left over from politics to matters of trade and commerce.

Each city had also its own peculiar form of government, and even the same magistrates went by different names in the several cities. Even foreign politics showed a marked contrast in the different cities. The northern cities for example were more or less ruled by a German policy, Florence and the center of Italy were alternately swayed by a French and an anti-French policy, while the South was under the constant pressure of divising new means of defence from the Turks.

319. **Leading Cities.**— Out of the multitude of Italian cities there were five that in importance tower far above the rest. These were Milan, Venice, Florence, Rome, and Naples. So great was their political influence, and so extensive was the territory that fell under their jurisdiction that they practically monopolized the general trend of Italian politics. Peace was preserved between them by a sort of balance of power. The states of Naples, Florence and Milan forming a coalition among themselves; Rome and Venice forming a dual alliance. Such was the harmony resulting from this balance of power that the expression " Two stringed Lyre of Italy " became proverbial.

So absolutely individual were these cities and so important were they that an Italian history of this period would be quite inadequate if it did not deal with each one of them in succession.

320. **Milan,** the capital of the great Lombardian plain was the most northern state of Italy. From the beginning of the fourteenth century Milan was ruled by the family of the Visconti. At first their government depended, at least in form, upon the sanction of the people, but gradually the veil was lifted and the government appeared what it was — a despot-

ism pure and simple. The framing of laws, the declaration of war or peace, the manipulation of the revenue — all these and other acts of sovereignty pertained exclusively to the Visconti.

321. **Gian Galiazzo Visconti** was the ablest man of his family, and in 1395 received from the emperor Wenceslas the title of Duke of Milan and Count of Pavia. Even as a boy, he had been sedate and thoughtful, and now that he had arrived at man's estate, he showed a remarkable capacity for ruling. He organized powerful armies, established an elaborate hierarchy of paid officials and inaugurated a well-balanced system of keeping accounts.

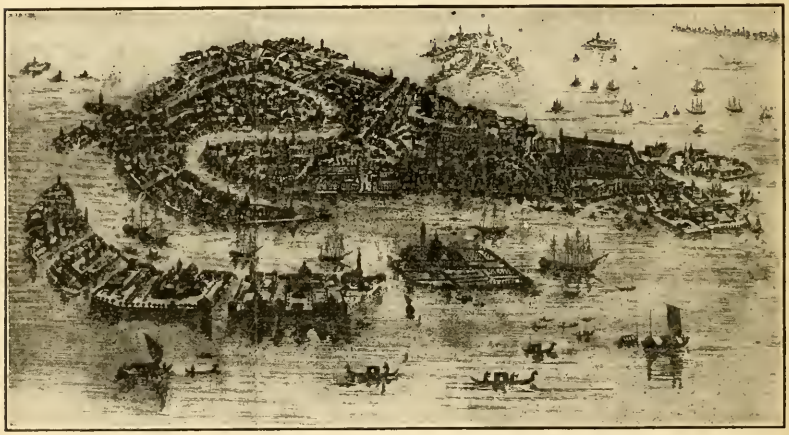
He had also had a curious scheme for drying up the lagoons of Venice in order that he might thus cripple his most dangerous rival in the North.

322. **Francesco Sforza.**— Gian Galiazzo was succeeded by his son Philip Varca who, however, died without issue and thus prepared the way for Francesco Sforza, who founded a new dynasty. Francesco Sforza was a military adventurer of no mere common type. He soon established himself firmly in the government of Milan and managed to secure the support of Louis XI of France and of Cosmo de Medici of Florence. After the death of Francesco Sforza, the government of the city and duchy of Milan for a short time came into the hands of Francesco Simonetta, previous secretary to Francesco Sforza. During this interregnum the Sforzas were exiled. But in 1479, Ludovico Sforza, whose cunning was equal to his ambition, managed to secure the support of Florence and of the Pope, and thus regain for himself and family, the government of Milan.

323. **Venice.**— We have already seen that Venice, owing to her geographical position, takes a peculiar place in Italian

history. Her separation from the mainland tended to exclude her from taking any part in Italian politics except in so far as it was necessary to save her subject possessions on the mainland, from being seized by the rapacity of Milan. At the same time, her powerful fleet and the numerous possessions that were still left to her after the fourth Crusade, dictated to her an imperial and commercial policy.

324. **Her Form of Government** was at first a republic,



A bird's-eye view of Venice. The city was founded on some small islands in the Adriatic by refugees during the invasion of Attila (p. 18), and gradually developed into a great maritime power.

under the presidency of the doge, who was elected for life. But it quickly assumed an oligarchic character. The people who spent their time in commerce were naturally unwilling to entrust the distracting affairs of state to professed politicians. In 1142 the election of the doge was transferred from the people to the Grand Council. This Council, which was at first a representative one, speedily became the monopoly of a few noble families who took their places in it by hereditary right.

During the fifteenth century, the government became still

more oligarchic. The famous Council of Ten now began to hold the reins of the government. At first it was a court of supreme judicature, and then by degrees it acquired control of the entire domestic and foreign policy of Venice.

325. **Commercial Greatness of Venice.**— It was under the two doges Tommaso Mocenigo and Francesco Foscari that Venice became most flourishing and powerful.

During the time of Tommaso Mocenigo she was the center of the world's commerce. The trade routes from the East to the West converged in Venice and thence passed up the rivers Rhine and the Danube to the northern countries of Europe. Her factories were found all over the Levant, in Constantinople and in Egypt. Indeed, Venice practically monopolized the great part of the carrying trade of the world.

326. **Political Position of Venice.**— When Francesco Foscari succeeded Mocenigo in 1425, Venice began to enter the vortex of Italian politics and at first with conspicuous success. At the expense of Milan, her rival, she acquired the provinces of Brescia, Bergamo, and Cremona. This success of Venice, however, was accompanied by disadvantages. It drew upon her the jealousy and hostility of certain other powers of Italy. Moreover, it diverted her attention from the Turks who were her real enemies and were menacing her colonial possessions and commerce upon which her prosperity so much depended.

And yet Venice still remained a great power, and at the beginning of the sixteenth century was an important factor in general European politics.

327. **Florence,** like Venice, was a republic, but of a very different kind. While the republic of Venice slowly developed into an oligarchy, the republic of Florence after a series

of many changes and revolutions, submitted to a despotic form of government. Even then the people of Florence seemed to regard their state as something to be continually experimented upon.

328. **The Albizzi.**— It generally happens that when a great deal of executive power is allowed to remain in the hands of the people, they are apt to be swayed either by political factions or party leaders. This was the case at Florence. The family of the Albizzi managed to get into their hands the exclusive control of the entire machinery of government. It is true that the general assembly of the people were still summoned in the public square, but they were generally swayed by the strongest factions of wire pullers.

Under the leadership of Albizzi, Florence was signally fortunate. Not only were its two great enemies, Gian Galliazzo Visconti of Milan and Ladislaus, King of Naples, carried off by the plague, but Arezzo, Livorno, and even Pisa fell into its hands.

329. **Family of the Medici.**— In 1434, Cosimo de Medici, a princely merchant, overthrew the administration of the Albizzi and seized the reins of power. He seems to have realized that the continuance of his power rested upon the good will of the lower orders, and his rule was distinguished for its prudence and moderation. He was a great patron of the liberal arts. Not only did he establish at Florence a learned academy for the explanation of the Platonian philosophy, but he formed a most valuable collection of Latin, Greek, and Oriental manuscripts that afterwards became the nucleus of the Laurentian Library.

Cosimo de Medici died in 1464 and was succeeded by his son Pietro, who after a short reign of only five years, died in 1469. He was succeeded by his son Lorenzo, surnamed the Magnificent.

330. **Lorenzo the Magnificent** is in every way the most brilliant representative of the Medici family. Both in politics and in the world of letters he found opportunities for displaying his signal ability.

His first endeavor was to continue the old triple alliance between Florence, Milan, and Naples, as a counterpoise to the power of Venice and Rome. But in this he nearly suffered a disappointment. A quarrel broke out between Lorenzo and Pope Sixtus IV over the appointment of an archbishop of Pisa. This quarrel seemed to have furnished a favorite opportunity to the Florentine family of the Pazzi, who had always been bitter foes of the Medici. A conspiracy was formed to murder Lorenzo and his brother Juliano. The conspiracy was crushed and the archbishop of Florence, who was suspected of being an accomplice, was executed. Thereupon, Pope Sixtus IV formed an alliance with Naples for the overthrow of Lorenzo. For a time, Lorenzo was in imminent danger. But, fortunately, a coolness sprung up between the Pope and Ferdinand of Naples, and the alliance between Naples, Florence, and Milan was restored.

331. **Patronage of Letters.**— Lorenzo was now more powerful than ever and his court was the most splendid in Europe. He could now employ his peaceful leisure in making Florence the home of culture and art. The Laurentian Library, so called after him, was endowed with most valuable manuscripts brought from the East by John Lascares. The art of printing was quickly recognized by him and used for the accurate reproduction of many of the classic authors. And when after the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, a great number of Greek exiles arrived in Florence, he founded an academy for the express purpose of spreading a knowledge of the Greek language. "This academy," Roscoe says, "was another Trojan horse from which so many illustrious champions have

sprung, spreading the knowledge of the Greek tongue throughout all the countries of Europe."

332. **Savonarola.**— The reign of Lorenzo was also famous for a great moral revival, which was brought about by the burning eloquence of Savonarola. This man, who has been the subject of many opposite views, was a Dominican monk of St. Mark's Convent, Florence. He preached so earnestly against the vices and frivolities of Florence that vast numbers reformed their lives, and became enthusiastic in the cause of religion.

But Savonarola was not a mere religious revivalist. He was a politician as well, and became the leader of the democratic party against the aristocratic party headed by the Medici. In 1499, Piero de Medici was expelled by the democratic party who formed a government of their own under a general legislative assembly. Savonarola, however, was fiercely opposed by the Franciscans. At length, it was arranged that the sanctity of Savonarola and his claims should be proved by the fiery ordeal. A fire was built in the market place, and Savonarola and one of his rivals, a Franciscan monk, were to walk through the blazing faggots. When they arrived at the place of trial, Savonarola proposed and insisted that the Franciscan should walk through the fire bearing in his hands the consecrated host. This demand both astonished and incensed the populace, who concluded, not unnaturally, that Savonarola was seeking to evade the ordeal.

From that time, his influence waned. His excessive zeal also complicated his position at Rome. Not content with preaching in general against the popular abuses, he also inveighed against the corruptions of the clergy and of the papal court, at that time presided over by Alexander VI.

333. **Death of Savonarola.**— The enemies of Savonarola, both in Florence and in Rome, became more active than ever

and a commission was appointed to try him. He was found guilty of heresy and of disturbance of the public peace, and was accordingly condemned to death at the stake, a sentence which was carried out in 1498.

Even to this day, the memory of Savonarola is strong at Florence, and crowds of curious gazers visit with veneration, the little cell that he occupied at the convent of St. Marks, and his character is still the sorry subject of acrimonious disputes. There are some who call Savonarola the fore-runner of Luther. But this epithet is hardly fair. In all the essentials of Catholic doctrine, Savonarola was orthodox, and his denunciation of abuses in high places is only one accidental point of resemblance between him and Luther.

We might, perhaps, sum up the character of this man by saying that though his private life was estimable, and his zeal productive of great good, yet his interference in politics and his unrestrained denunciation of abuses brought about his ruin. His death was the real penalty not of heresy, but of rashness and of the spirit of meddling interference.

Lorenzo died in 1492, leaving three sons, Pietro, Giovanni and Juliano. Pietro succeeded his father and Giovanni afterwards became famous as Pope Leo X.

The Papal States

The Papal States of Rome had begun to occupy a considerable extent of territory. It comprised the Marches, Romagna, and Umbria, besides the province of Rome, and had come to be recognized as a kingdom. During the absence of the popes in France, the actual authority of the pope in the Papal States had greatly diminished. A great number of cities in the Roman territory were allowed to be placed under the government of papal legates, who by degrees practically assumed a sovereign independent authority.

334. **The Conciliar Movement.**— Another very important cause of the temporary decline of the power of the popes was the great Conciliar Movement of the sixteenth century. During the middle ages, the pope had held the reins of supreme power, but a serious dispute over the succession to the papacy attracted the minds of men to another source of authority — namely, the Councils of the Church.

The Conciliar Movement first looms into importance after the death of Pope Gregory XI, which took place shortly after his return to Rome from his exile at Avignon, in 1378. A double election then took place. For, while the Roman populace selected and demanded Pope Urban VI, who like themselves, was an Italian, the Cardinals elected another pope, Clement VII, who would be willing to resume his pleasant and gay abode at Avignon.

335. **Council of Pisa.**— Under these circumstances, there seemed only one way out of the difficulty, and that was, to summon a general Council. The University of Paris, the center of Catholic theological learning, also advocated the same proposal. The result was the Council of Pisa, held in 1409. At this council, both the popes were deposed and a new pope was elected, who dying one year afterwards, was succeeded by John XXII.

336. **Martin V.**— There were now three rival popes, a circumstance which made the summoning of another Council once more inevitable. In 1414, was assembled the Council of Constance, which in numbers, in the interest it excited, and in the questions with which it had to deal, marks the culminating point of the Conciliar movement. At this Council, all the three popes were dethroned, and Martin V was elected as the new pope.

The election of the new pope and the practical termination of the schism was only one of the important tasks assumed by

the council. The next step was the reformation of the many abuses in the Church. For this purpose, various concordats were made between the Church and the various nations, while the pope himself executed some very important decrees on reform, especially on such important matters as simony and clerical deportment.

The good work effected by the council of Constance, unfortunately carried with it the seeds of great danger to the unity of the Church. The important part taken by the Council in ending the schism led many persons to believe that the authority of a general Council was superior to that of the pope himself. The pope, however, condemned this opinion and declared that it was unlawful for anyone to appeal from the judgments of the Apostolic See, or to reject its decisions in matters of faith.

337. **Council of Basel.**— How great was the danger, could be clearly seen a few years later when the Council of Basel even deposed Pope Eugene IV, who refused to acknowledge its authority and thereupon elected an anti-pope. This proceeding had the effect of causing a reaction. The more moderate party now rallied to the side of the pope, and from this time, the Conciliar Movement began to decline. Perhaps its formidable recrudescence appears in France under Louis XIV, when, as we shall see, the Gallican Church claimed that a council was higher in authority than the pope.

338. **Provincial Councils.**— Besides the general councils already described, another element of the Conciliar movement was the influence of the provincial councils. Examples of these are the councils of London, and of Prague, which condemned the doctrines of Wycliff. In fact, the idea of personal authority seems for a time to have been generally weakened, until the climax was passed in the Council of Basel.

By the time of Nicholas V, the spiritual authority of the pope re-asserted itself, and peace was restored to Christendom. In Rome itself, however, the pope had great difficulty in asserting his temporal authority.

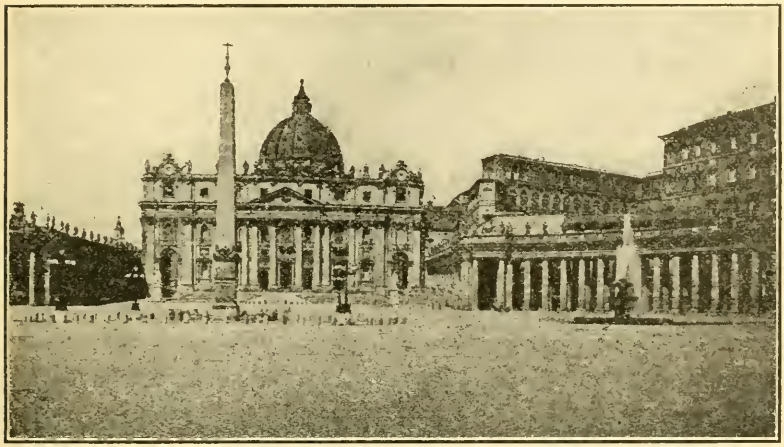
339. **The Great Schism.**— When Pope Gregory XI did return to Rome, after the seventy years' exile in Avignon, there broke out the great schism which did even more harm than the Babylonish captivity. Three rival popes disputed among themselves for the possession of the tiara. There had indeed been rival popes before, but there had been little doubt as to who was the real pope. It was not so in the present case. Even eminent jurists were puzzled to decide between the claimants since the question depended so much upon positive fact — whether or not the election of Pope Urban VI, had been a forced one and therefore invalid.

340. **Nicholas V.**— The schism was finally healed by Nicholas V, who was elected Pope in 1447 after Eugenius IV. He prevailed upon the anti-pope to resign in his favor. Peace was thereby restored to Christendom. But the Pope still had difficulty in reasserting his temporal authority in Rome. An attempt was made to revive the independence of Rome against the Pope. But the firmness of Nicholas succeeded in crushing the movement and Stephen Porcaro, the ringleader, was taken and executed.

The reign of Nicholas V meant not only the restoration of papal authority in Rome but also the progress of learning and of the arts. His collection of books and manuscripts as well as the translations that he had made of Greek and Latin authors, culminated in his crowning achievement — the foundation of the Vatican Library — now one of the largest libraries in the world. Also the material appearance of Rome was improved by the erection of many sumptuous buildings.

Nicholas V died in 1455 and was succeeded by Calixtus III the chief political event of whose reign was the victory achieved by the Christians over the Turks at Belgrade. He died in 1458 and was succeeded by Pius II.

341. **Pope Pius II.** has been called, and not without reason, the most humane and lovable of the popes of the Renaissance. The elegance and refinement of his mind and his gifts of



St. Peter's at Rome, the largest church in the world, covering about 4 acres. The Palace of the Vatican adjoining it on the north covers 13½ acres. The grandeur of these two structures is chiefly due to the work of Pope Nicholas V, and the genius of Michael Angelo and Raphael.

poetry and eloquence endear him to the student, but to the Christian he is still more interesting on account of the sanctity and earnestness of his life. His character had even a touch of the heroic, and the spectacle of the aged pontiff endeavoring to lead in person the reluctant forces of Christendom against the Turk may well excite the admiration of posterity.

342. **Paul III.**— With the death of Pius II came the advent of four popes who, one after the other, seemed by the

successive increasing worldliness of their character, to have incurred the censure or at least the suspicion of posterity. Paul II who came to the papal throne in 1464 displayed an excessive fondness for money and extravagant display. Yet he was not without some zeal for the good of the Church, as was shown in his endeavors to correct abuses. He was also one of the first to see the demoralizing influence of the extreme followers of the humanistic movement, and acted with severity towards certain persons who tried to introduce pagan rites and ceremonies.

343. **Sixtus IV** (1471) was a man whose character consisted of violent contracts and extremes. Of him we may say with truth there was no mediocrity, either of virtue or of badness. The partiality that he showed towards his relatives, the vengeful spirit that he showed towards his enemies, and his unscrupulousness in many matters brought upon him the odium of his contemporaries. And yet he was not utterly void of ecclesiastical activity and some compensating qualities. Lovers of art will gratefully remember his patronage of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and others, and philanthropists will praise his attempt to end the disputes between Christian princes.

344. **Innocent VIII** (1484) was also notorious for his love of money, and under his reign ecclesiastical affairs seem to have received less attention than during the time of his two predecessors.

345. **Alexander VI** succeeded Innocent VIII in 1492, and this pope perhaps more than any other seems to have incurred the blame of posterity for the badness of his private life. So conflicting are the opinions of modern historians, and so contradictory is the evidence of even contemporary writers of

his time that even the impartial observer must experience a great difficulty in forming a just estimate. It is true that Italian writers living in his age, describe him as a monster of wickedness, but on the other hand, we find that many of those who elected him were remarkable for their sanctity of life and shrewd insight into character. Of the most serious crimes alleged against him there is no evidence. We may perhaps, sum up the character of Alexander VI in the words of a French writer who says: "The more attentively and thoroughly original documents of the history of that period are studied the more clear will it become that the memory of Alexander VI has been fearfully calumniated. True criticism has long since cleared the name of Alexander VI of the charge of poisoning and of the other horrible crimes that had been groundlessly imputed to him by the revengeful journalists and scandal-mongers of that age and country. The implacable hostility of the reformers and the resentment of France because of the political attitude of Alexander VI have also contributed not a little to blacken his memory."

Though not the monster that some would have him to be, yet Alexander VI certainly showed too great discrepancy between his private life and the dignity and sanctity of his office.

346. **Naples and Sicily.**— The kingdom of Naples presented a very strong contrast to the rest of Italy. Ever since its conquest by the Normans in the twelfth century it had retained a very strong element of feudal government. It also differed from the other Italian states in having been so long under different foreign rulers.

347. **French Rule.**— In the thirteenth century the kingdom of Naples and Sicily was governed by Manfred, representative of the Ghibelline or anti-papal party in Italy. Pope Urban IV, in order to crush this powerful rival offered the

kingdom of Naples and Sicily to Charles, Count of Anjou and brother of Louis IX. Charles, who was full of ambition, gladly accepted the offer and took possession of the gift by armed force. The French, however, did not remain long in possession. On Easter Monday evening, 1282, there took place what is called the Sicilian Vespers, that is to say the French were expelled from Sicily by the rebel inhabitants and the crown of Sicily was offered instead to the House of Aragon.

348. **Division of Naples and Sicily.**— The kingdom of Naples and Sicily thus became divided and remained so till the death of Joanna II, the last heir of the House of Anjou in 1435. During her lifetime, she had named king Alfonsus of Aragon as her successor. Her choice, however, was very unpopular and she was forced to change the name of Alfonsus for that of Renè of Anjou. A contest took place between the two rival claimants. Partly owing to the duke of Milan, who supported Alfonsus, and partly to the treachery of Renè's generals, Alfonsus succeeded in ousting his rival, and in 1442 he took possession of Sicily. Thus the two kingdoms of Naples and Sicily were once again united under one monarch.

349. **The Reign of Alfonso** was characterized by peace, order, and justice. Literature and the arts began to flourish, hitherto neglected lands were placed under cultivation, and all were united in praise of Alfonso the Magnificent.

350. **Rival Claims.**— When, however, Alfonso died in 1458 there was discord again. To his son Ferdinand the late king had left the kingdom of Naples, and to his brother John he had left Sicily, Valencia, and Sardinia.

It will be remembered, however, that the House of Anjou for several years had reigned in Naples. The claim of the House of Anjou was again revived in the person of Renè le

Bon, who owing to infirmity resigned his pretensions to his son John of Calabria. But the House of Anjou failed to establish its claim mainly on account of the jealousy of Louis XI of France. Ferdinand I was thus secured in the possession of Naples. The French claim still lingered, but the kingdom of Naples on the whole remained faithful to the House of Aragon. In any case the sentiment of the other rulers of Italy was quite against any French domination in the South of Italy.

Spain

351. **Spanish Kingdoms.**— During the early and later middle ages, the whole energy of Spain had been directed to the great contest with the Moors. But at the time that she was succeeding in expelling the Moors there began to be formed certain Christian kingdoms which continually increased in size and importance.

By the middle of the fifteenth century the most important of these kingdoms were as follows: Navarre in the northwest, Castile and Aragon in the center, Portugal in the east, and the Moorish kingdom of Granada in the south. All these kingdoms were quite distinct from one another. Each had its own tongue, national sentiment, past laws and traditions. It was only in the fifteenth century that there began to appear certain formative influences which with extraordinary rapidity brought these scattered kingdoms together into one solid and powerful state.

352. **Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella.**— The immediate cause of the rapid union of Spain was the marriage between King Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. Of this union, the ultimate results were the conquest of Granada from the Moors, the acquisition of Navarre, and even for some time the annexation of Portugal.

It was the policy of Ferdinand to establish in the two king-

doms of Castile and Aragon a strong central government. This he did by first weakening these elements in the state that were most opposed to the royal authority.

353. **Opposition to Union.**— First there was the feudal element. The nobles still enjoyed a considerable amount of private jurisdiction and they still formed the fighting strength of the country. Ferdinand sought to diminish this importance of the nobility by forming a standing army at the expense of the state. At the same time he increased throughout the land, the power of the law courts, and all offenders, no matter of what rank, were punished with equal severity.

Another element that tended to thwart the growing power of the crown was the Cortes. These Cortes were assemblies of representatives of the Spanish nation. At first, only the higher classes of the people were represented, but as the towns gradually rose in importance, these also were allowed to send representatives. Naturally the kings viewed the Cortes with distrust and jealousy, and even in the early part of the fifteenth century the kings of Castile had succeeded in reducing the popular power of the administration. King Ferdinand continued this policy by reducing the power of even the higher orders of the Cortes, namely of the nobles.

354. **Means of Extending the Royal Power.**— One of the most powerful means by which Ferdinand strove to expand the authority of the crown was by means of the Inquisition. This began in the twelfth century when the bishops and their assistants constituted a court of inquiry to find out and punish heretics. It was further developed in the thirteenth century by Pope Innocent III, and reached its full growth in the fifteenth century. But even at this time the Inquisition did not deal with heretics and apostates merely as such, but only when they boldly and publicly taught their doctrines to others.

The inquisition that was established in Spain differed con-

siderably from the general inquisition of the Church. This was in its organization and purpose a religious institution whereas the Spanish inquisition was a national political organization. Its aim was to increase the power of the crown and to set up some power in opposition to that of the nobility. It is true that its main ostensible object was to crush heresy, but the real interest was to reach at persons who were suspected of treason.

Not only was Ferdinand singularly successful in his home policy, but in his relations with foreign powers he managed to form important connections with nearly all the chief countries of Europe. By his wife Isabella he had four daughters: Isabella, Joanna, Catharine, and Mary. Isabella and Mary married into Portuguese houses, and thus prepared the way for the temporary annexation to Spain of the kingdom of Portugal. Joanna married Philip, son of Maximilian of Germany. Catharine was wedded to Henry VIII of England. Of these marriages the most important was that between Philip and Joanna, since Charles, their son, ultimately became sole ruler of Spain and the Hapsburg possession. To these vast possessions in Europe were added the newly discovered lands in the western continent. It was the treasures of Peru and Mexico that supplied the "sinews of war" for Spain on the continent of Europe.

355. **Cardinal Ximenes.**— This success of the royal house was brought about chiefly by the skill of the distinguished minister, Cardinal Ximenes. He was one of the first of the brilliant clerical statesmen for which the sixteenth century became so famous. He was a saintly and humble man, singularly free from greed of money or power. He was also a statesman of consummate ability, and by his prudence and firm decision in arduous movements, no doubt contributed more than any other man to the future greatness of his country.

England

356. **The Tudor Dynasty.**— The fifteenth century saw in England the establishment of the Tudor dynasty in the person of Henry VII (1485). He was a man whose character very much resembled that of Louis XI of France, except that he lacked some of the latter's most odious qualities. He was exceedingly cunning and shrewd, and he did his best to continue the policy of royal despotism begun by Edward IV.

Already, the old feudal nobility, which had been such a rival of the royal power, had been greatly diminished by the Wars of the Roses, and Henry VII sought to diminish the power of even those nobles that remained. A statute was passed which enacted that no nobleman should be allowed to keep more than a certain number of retainers, also the offices of state, instead of being distributed among the nobility were now entrusted to persons of the middle class who were naturally more dependent upon the king.

357. **Ways of Raising Money.**— Parliament, the great safeguard of the liberties of the people was summoned as seldom as possible. In order to get money for carrying on the government, Henry VII was obliged to have recourse to other sources. He resorted to benevolences or forced gifts of which the only good thing that can be said is that the money was extorted from the rich and not from the poor. Perhaps the most grievous of Henry's financial methods was the infliction of huge fines for offenses committed under obsolete statutes.

358. **Court of Star Chamber.**— One important legal feature of Henry VII's was the institution of the Court of Star Chamber. This was a revival of the old criminal jurisdiction of the king's permanent council of state. The object of it is

made sufficiently clear from the words of Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury, who speaking in the king's behalf, says as follows: "The true way is to stop the seeds of sedition and rebellion in the beginning, to devise, confirm, and quicken good and wholesome laws against riots and unlawful assemblies of people and all combinations and federations of them by liveries, tokens, and other badges of factious independence; that the peace of the land may by these ordinances, as by bars of iron, be solidly bound in and strengthened, and all force both in court, country and private houses be suppressed." It is true that this statute aimed at the unruly nobles. But the expedient was dangerous, and it lead to great abuses under future kings, for the prisoner was not tried by jury or according to the methods of the common law.

359. **Henry VIII.**— Henry VII died in 1509 and was succeeded by his second son the infamous Henry VIII, under whose reign the despotism of the Tudors was destined to reach its most odious extremes.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Effects of the Hundred Years' War on France — Important aid rendered by Agnes Sorel — Growing power of the monarchy — Character of Louis XI — He subdues the rebellions of the nobles partly by force, partly by diplomacy — Contest between Louis XI and Duke Charles of Burgundy — Failure of the French policy of Duke Charles — The German policy of Duke Charles and its failure — Success of Louis XI foreign policy — Louis XI succeeded by Charles VIII — Disunion of Germany — Forces that made *for* and *against* German unity — Character of Frederick III — His attempts to introduce order and unity — Failure of these attempts and consequent losses in Italy — Formation of the Suabian League — Territorial expansion of the Hapsburg dominions — Reign of Maximilian — His character and accomplishments — Reforms accomplished by the estates under Berthold of Maintz — Effect of those reforms — Success of Maximilian's foreign policy — Character of the separate city — States of Italy — Their political independence and isolation — Five

prominent city states — Milan and the power of the Visconti — Administration of Gian Galliazzo Visconti — Francesco Sforza, founder of a new dynasty — Venice and her peculiar position — The power centered in the Grand Council — Administration of Tommaso Mocegno — Expansion of Venice under the dōge Francesco Foscari — the Republic of Florence ascendency of the Albizzi — Successful rivalry of the Medici — Cosmo de Medici — Lorenzo the Magnificent — Quarrel between Lorenzo and Sixtus IV — The court of Lorenzo — Rome — Extent of Papal States — Evils of the Great Schism — Nicholas V heals the Schism — Pius II — His learning and piety — Paul II — Sixtus IV — Innocent VIII — Alexander VI — Observations on the supposed wickedness of the popes — Peculiar feudal government of Naples and Sicily — The Sicilian Vespers — Rivalry between French and Spanish claimants — Reign of Alphonsus — Ferdinand I secured in the possession of Naples — The most important kingdoms of Spain — Union of Castille and Arragon — Policy of Ferdinand — The power of the nobles and of the cortes is lessened — Nature of the Spanish Inquisition — Its difference from the church inquisition — Ferdinand's successful foreign policy — Character of Henry VII of England — He subdues the power of the nobles — Influence of Parliament is reduced — Institution and nature of the court of the Star Chamber — Accession of Henry VIII.

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CHAPTER XVII

CHARACTER OF THE MODERN PERIOD

360. **Nature of the Division Between Medieval and Modern History.**— Medieval history is supposed to end and modern history, to begin during the sixteenth century. And yet it would be a mistake to draw a hard and fast line between the two periods. Certain principles and forces that were existent during the middle ages still continued and exist to-day. Moreover, certain features that we consider essentially modern, could be found even in the medieval period. There is always the medieval man, and there is always the modern man, only that as time advances one or the other of these two may predominate. In every period of history there are the mystics and the idealists, and there is no age in which one cannot find some men that prefer to deal with solid, material facts.

And yet historians not without reason draw a distinction between medieval and modern history. For during the sixteenth century there appeared new forces which began to divert the history of civilized races into entirely new channels. The effect which the Renaissance had in lifting the majority of men out of their old habits of thought and action, the recent doctrine of balance of power in Europe, the remarkable changes in the economic condition of Europe, and the religious restlessness that characterized the age — all these tended to transform in many ways the action of the great drama of history.

361. **Characteristics of Modern History.**— We find, for example that the geographical area of historical movements

was considerably narrowed. Whereas, in medieval times such movements as feudalism and the struggle between empire and papacy practically covered the whole area of Europe; we find that the movements of modern history are pent up within local areas. It is true that such movements as the Reformation took place in many parts of Europe. But they now assume distinctly different types, according to the nature of the state in which they take place.

We shall also find in modern history a greater number of dramatic positions and a better field for heroic action than during the medieval period. For the separate states had by the fifteenth century attained to a stronger individual life. Each had its own individual ambitions and policy and the clash of interests became more frequent and violent.

Also the threads of connection in modern history differ from those of medieval history. The empire and the papacy formed the two important threads of connection running all through the medieval period, from Constantine down to the papal captivity at Avignon. But in modern history it is the balance of power that forms the main connecting thread. There is no time in modern history in which we do not find political combinations between European powers tending by their even balance to preserve the equilibrium and peace of Europe.

Such in general is the difference between medieval and modern history. It will now be helpful to consider in detail some of the altered conditions of human society that appear in the fifteenth century.

362. **Geographical Changes.**— The fifteenth century had been remarkable for important geographical discoveries. As early as 1433 Prince Henry of Portugal had discovered the Madeiras and the Azores in the Atlantic, and what was still more important, the western coast of Africa. After this, at-

tempts were made to circumnavigate the whole of the African continent, and in 1487 Batholomew Diaz, also a Portuguese, rounded the Cape of Good Hope. But this event was not followed by any important result. The honor of accomplishing the complete journey to India by going round the south coast of Africa was reserved for Vasco de Gama, who having been entrusted with a fleet for that purpose by the king of Portugal, arrived at the Malabar coast of India in 1498.

363. **Discovery of America.**— Spain then took the lead in voyages of discovery. Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor, obtained from Isabella of Castile the ships and money with which to explore the western routes of the Atlantic. He thus stumbled in 1492 upon the continent of America, which was added to the Spanish possessions. The continent, however, was not named after Columbus, but after Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian navigator who was believed by some to have been the first to touch American soil. This, however, was an error and arose partly from the fact that Vespucci deliberately antedated his first voyage making it out to be in 1497 instead of 1499 — though there is no evidence to show that Vespucci had designed that the continent should be named after him. What really procured him this honor was the circumstance that his accounts of the voyage considerably preceded those of his fellow-discoverer, Columbus.

The results of these and of other less important discoveries had a lasting effect on the history of Europe. Hitherto the Mediterranean had been the chief scene of the sailor's activities, now it was the wide ocean. From another point of view it was one step further in the mighty progress of civilization from the east toward the west.

364. **Change of the Old Trade Routes.**— At that time, Europe was dependent upon the East for most of the luxuries

HUDSON BAY
NEW FRANCE
Cartier, 1535
Hochelaga (Montreal)
NEWFOUNDLAND
Cortereal, 1500
John Cabot, 1497
Cortereal 1500
ICELAND
ENGLAND
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Madrid
Azores, 1451, 1461
Madeira Is. 1346, 1418
Canary Is. 1341, 1479
Cape Verde Is. 1456
Florida
Cuba
Bahamas
Bermudas
(C. Hatteras)
(1) Columbus, 1492
(2) Columbus, 1493
(3) Columbus, 1498
(4) Columbus, 1502
Pt. Eugenia
Sinaloa
Culiacan
NEW MEXICO
Zacatula
Acapulco
Tehuantepec
Guatemala
Honduras
Yucatan
Vera Cruz
Mexico
NORTH SEA (CARIBBEAN)
Hispaniola
Puerto Rico
Jamaica
Trinidad
Dominica
Ojeda
Ordaz
Vasco de Gama, 1498
Magellan, 1519
Balboa, 1513
Pearls
NEW GRANADA
Bogota
VENEZUELA
Maracaibo
Coro
SOUTH SEA (PACIFIC)
Galapagos Is.
Guayaquil
Tumbez
Quito
Amazon, 1541
Cajamarca
PERU
Ciudad de los Reyes (Lima)
Callao
Cuzco
Arequipa
Titicaca
NEW CASTILE
Potosi
Tupiza
Jujuy
Tucuman
Cordoba
Cerro de Potosi
Paraguay
Parana
Rio de la Plata
Buenos Aires
Colonia
Santiago
Coquimbo
Copiapo
Coquimbo
Valdivia
Juan Fernandez Is.
Magellan, 1521
Magellan, 1520
Line of demarcation according to Treaty of 1494
Falkland Is.
Tierra del Fuego
Magellan Strait
C. Horn
Patagonia
Brazil or Terra de Santa Cruz
Cabral, 1500
Porto Seguro
Villa Vicosa
Vespucci
1501, 1503
Rio de Janeiro
C. St. Roque
San Francisco
Ascension I. 1503
St. Helena 1502
Tristan da Cunha 1506
Tropic of Capricorn
Equator
Azores
Canaries
Cape Verde Is.
Guinea (Dilao Omana)
Cold Coast
Timbuktu
Niger
Senegal
Gambia
C. Blanco
C. Bojador
C. Verde
C. Sierra Leone
Vasco de Gama, 1497
Magellan, 1519
COLONIES
15th, 16th
120°
100°
80°
60°
40°
20°
0°
80°
40°
20°
0°
West
Longitude 0° from

D EXPLORATIONS
OF THE
D 17th CENTURIES

of medieval life, for such things, for example, as the finer kinds of glass and porcelain, rare woods and dyes, perfumes, drugs, and especially spices. All these articles of commerce were conveyed from the East to the West by well known trade routes. These trade routes converged upon Venice, and then followed the Danube and the Rhine to the towns of northern Europe. The Mediterranean towns thus became the general marts and clearing houses, and it was upon this commerce that Venice and other Italian cities depended for their enormous profits and wealth. But now the blockage of the old trade routes by the aggressions of the Turks combined with the discovery of a new trade route to India and the East, in such a way as to cause a most rapid decline in the power of the old Mediterranean cities. And not only these, but the cities on the Rhine as well began to share in the general depression of trade.

On the other hand, the countries bordering on the Atlantic experienced a corresponding increase of commercial prosperity. The fleets of England, France, Spain, and Holland grew in size and strength. Between England and Holland especially there quickly sprang up a keen rivalry for the carrying trade of the world.

Widening of the Markets.— The markets became suddenly widened. Till now trade had been carried on only within certain small areas, or at most, only on certain lines. Manufacturers for example, would cater only to the town in which they lived, and commercial operations were confined to certain classes of goods. But now the manufacturers would seek for customers in the most distant parts of the world, and instead of small retail dealers, large companies were formed that carried on business on a hitherto unprecedented scale.

365. **Rise of Diplomacy.**— Some kind of diplomacy had always been in existence even from the earliest times. For

there had always been the need of drawing up treaties and arranging alliances offensive and defensive between different nations. Also there was the necessity for certain persons to act as messengers between one state and another. Hence we read in ancient history of envoys being sent from the Persians to the Greeks, and in later times, from the Jewish people to the Romans. But it was only in the fifteenth century that diplomacy began to flourish as an art, and that resident ambassadors began to make their appearance.

The custom of employing resident ambassadors seems to have begun with the kings of Poland and Sweden, while the Knights of St. John also had the same officials under the title of procurators. Rome itself early adopted the practice of sending out to the different courts of Europe her Cardinal legates and her nuncios — the last being often simple laymen.

366. **Venetian Diplomacy.**— But of all the states it seems to have been Venice that brought diplomacy to perfection as an art. Her extensive trade naturally placed her in unceasing contact with other states and there speedily arose the necessity of employing permanent officials who might represent her interests in foreign parts and collect useful information. By the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries her ambassadors were to be found in every court of Europe. All eyes were turned towards Venice as the one great center of diplomatic activity. Foreign states often got information about one another's movements through Venice. The number of important letters and other documents collected in the archives in Venice became enormous and at the present day, form a most valuable treasury of information to the historian and antiquarian.

The Venetian ambassadors themselves were men of ripe experience and distinguished for sagacity and tact. Only nobles were admitted to the diplomatic profession, and they had to be past the age of thirty-eight. One useful regulation

was that no ambassador should remain at the same court more than three years. This, no doubt, arose partly from the suspicions of the Venetian government, but it was also owing to the desire of widening the experience of the diplomatic staff.

367. The Art of War.— The art of war as well as that of diplomacy underwent important transformations.

Till now, the chief fighting strength of an army consisted in its cavalry. During the middle ages, the man on horseback was generally a synonym for a person of gentle birth. In fact there were strong points of resemblance between the old Roman eques or knights and the medieval horseman or knight. They were men of skill and ability and contrasted forcibly with the boorish dimensions of the foot soldier. By degrees, however, the condition of the medieval horseman declined. Not only was there sometimes a difficulty in finding men of noble birth to fill vacant places, but the fighting value of the horseman considerably diminished. Custom had made his armor ridiculously heavy. He was like a moving castle, and if he happened to fall, it was exceeding difficult for him to rise again. Moreover, he was of use only on the open plain, where there were no small fortifications or ditches to oppose his progress.

While the cavalry thus dwindled in importance, the rise of infantry became more and more pronounced. The value of the foot soldier had been early demonstrated even on the fields of Crécy, Agincourt, and Bannockburn, and by the fifteenth century battles were decided by the comparative efficiency of the infantry on either side.

368. Standing Armies.— During the reign of Louis XI a large standing army was formed of ten thousand French infantry. This was afterwards reinforced by a large body of German infantry. But the morals and discipline of the men

were bad, and they were not nearly so serviceable as the Swiss infantry. The men that formed the Swiss infantry were well trained and disciplined, and as has already been pointed out, they shattered the power of Charles of Burgundy on the battle-field of Granson.

Even superior to the Swiss was the Spanish infantry. During the long wars against the Moors they had acquired great reputation, and afterwards they became known as the very best in Europe.

369. **Introduction of Artillery.**— Another great change in the method of warfare was brought in by the use of artillery. Already in 1312 we read of the Moors using artillery against the Spaniards, and again in 1337 we are told that the Scots used bombards in the siege of Sterling Castle in Scotland. In the fifteenth century, the old-fashioned hand gun became greatly improved and was transformed into the arquebus, a weapon in which the firing of the powder took place with certainty and far greater speed. It is evident that the use of artillery must have played a very important part in doing away with the castle and the knight, the two main features of medieval warfare.

370. **The Professional Soldier.**— A radical change also took place in regard to the status of the soldier. During the middle ages, there was no complete separation between citizen and soldier. The man at the plow or the man at the forge had of necessity to take part in all his country's wars. The fifteenth century saw the end of this universal conscription, and we find instead mercenary soldiers. These men were specially trained in the art of warfare, adopting it as a profession, and were frequently hired by the sovereigns of Europe to fight their battles. From henceforth the profession of warfare is generally distinct from the civilian professions.

371. Formation of the Modern Period.— Such are the main changes in the condition of European society at this time. And when we bear in mind the other changes that must have been introduced by the different inventions of printing, of the telescope and of the microscope, as well as by the increased comfort and luxury throughout all classes of society we can clearly realize the altered character of the period of history on which we are now entering. We shall find it a period fraught with deep and earnest problems and having so close a connection with our own times, full of intense interest.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

No strict line of distinction between medieval and modern history — New forces appearing in the sixteenth century — Changes of geographical areas of action — New threads of continuity — Discoveries in the New World — Columbus and Vespucci — Change in the old trade routes — Widening of the markets — Rise of diplomacy — The custom of sending out residential ambassadors — Changes in the art of war — Infantry more popular than cavalry — The French standing army — Use of artillery — Professional militarism.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

WINDSOR, *Columbus;* FISKE, *Discovery of America;* STEPHENS, *Portugal;* BEAZLEY, *Prince Henry;* PRESCOTT, *Conquest of Peru;* ROGERS, *Economic Interpretation of History;* GROSE, *History of the Army of England;* GLENIE, *History of Germany;* WRAXELL, *History of France;* DAVIS, *Art of War;* GROSE, *Treatise on Ancient Armour;* BRETT, *Pictorial and Descriptive record of origin and development of arms and armor.*

CHAPTER XVIII

ITALY THE CENTER OF FOREIGN POLITICS

372. **Charles VIII.**— We have already seen that the kingdom of Naples had been a subject of dispute between France and Aragon. Although the House of Aragon retained the victorious possession of the kingdom, the French claim still lingered on and was again very actively revived when Charles VIII ascended the French throne (1483).

Charles VIII though stunted and deformed both in body and mind was endowed with sufficient nervous restlessness to make him enter upon an expedition for the conquest of the kingdom of Naples. In this he was also urged on by some of his ministers, who were in the pay of the Italian envoys. Nor were there wanting circumstances favorable to the enterprise. Naples if obtained would serve as a good basis of operations in Charles' intended crusade against the Turks. And, as far as the states of Italy were concerned, everything seemed favorable for such an enterprise. Ludovico Sforza of Milan, hoping that he would be protected in his duchy even sent a special invitation to Charles to undertake the expedition. Venice was neutral. In Florence there was a strong pro-French party, headed by the monk Savonarola, while enemies of the Pope, Alexander VI, were hoping that a French descent would prove fatal to the Pope's schemes of family aggrandizement.

373. **Charles VIII Enters Italy.**— In 1494, Charles made his celebrated descent into Italy. Everything proved favorable. Milan received him with open arms, at Florence Pietro de Medici, greatly to the disgust of the Florentines ceded to

him important towns; at Rome, the pope was forced to make a treaty advantageous to Charles, and in Naples itself Ferdinand, his opponent, was compelled to withdraw owing to the ill will of his subject citizens.

374. **Charles, Master of Naples.**— Charles entered Naples without opposition. Oriental splendor and magnificence attended his accession to the Neapolitan throne. With a glove in one hand and a scepter in the other, he received the acclamations of his joyful subjects. But the space of one short week saw the downfall of his hopes. His subjects became discontented at being shut out from the high offices of state while the city treasury became every day more exhausted. More than all, alarming rumors reached him regarding the attitude of the other Italian states.

375. **Italy Rises Against Charles VIII.**— Charles' unexpected and overwhelming success had brought about a complete revulsion of feeling. His closest friend Ludovico Sforza was offended by being refused the promised principality of Taranto, while the other Italian states viewed with distrustful alarm the menace of the French power so rapidly rising in Italy. Even foreign princes felt alarm at the preponderance of French interests. The envoys of the discontented states met secretly at Venice and formed a league against the French. The members of the league were Milan, Venice, the Pope, Ferdinand of Aragon and Maximilian of Germany.

Charles decided that the wisest course was to return to France. But he still had time to commit the mistake of naming the incapable Marquis of Montpensier as regent of Naples during his absence.

376. **Retreat of Charles VIII.**— In haste Charles pursued his journey to the north of Italy. The confederates of the

League were equally quick and at Fornovo (1495) the hostile forces engaged in battle. Victory so far favored Charles that he succeeded in making his escape and continuing his journey safely to France.

Naples was soon afterwards taken by Gonsalvo of Cordova, a Spanish general, and Ferdinand again took possession of his kingdom after an absence of three months.

377. **Results of the Invasion.**— The descent of Charles VIII into Italy though dramatic, was a mere episode as far as direct results were concerned. But it had an indirect influence upon European politics. States began to look beyond their own frontiers and to dream of foreign conquest. Wider views began to be entertained of international relations. And the league that was formed against Charles was the first of a series that were to roll in rapid succession over the tumultuous sea of Italian politics.

Charles VIII lived only three years after his expedition into Italy. He died in 1498, and owing to want of direct heirs, he was succeeded by a prince of a collateral line in the person of Louis of Orleans.

378. **Louis XII's** reign was more important in its foreign than in its domestic policy. Even more than was the case with his predecessor, there were reasons why he should interfere in Italy. He still inherited the French claim upon Naples, and the condition of Italy was even more favorable for French intervention than when Charles undertook his expedition. Venice and Milan were at war with each other, Florence was occupied in besieging Pisa, while the pope had everything to hope from the French.

379. **Louis XII. Active in Italy.**— With skilled diplomacy Louis secured active allies in Italy. He promised the pope

the assistance of French troops in order to save Romagna for Cæsar Borgia, the pope's son. Regarding Naples, Louis even persuaded Ferdinand, King of Spain, to consent to the dethronement of his relative Frederick, King of Naples.

Such brilliant prospects only showed how accident may sometimes mar the most skilled diplomacy. Frederick, it is true, was driven out of Naples, but in the moment of victory, Louis and Ferdinand began to quarrel about their share of the spoils. Again the French were driven out of Naples and this time their expulsion was permanent.

380. **Pope Julius II.**— Italy, however, did not remain long in peace. In 1503, Pope Julius II ascended the papal throne. He had all the talents of a warrior as well as the astuteness of a diplomat, and he was determined to extend the papal states in Italy. Louis XII on the other hand still dreamed of foreign conquests and the result was another coalition of European powers, this time against Venice.

381. **League of Cambray.**— By the fifteenth century Venice, owing to its power and splendor, towered high among even the prominent states of Italy. Secure in her island home, she was also mistress of the greater part of the lands that had accrued to her from the Fourth Crusade. Her policy of passivity in most of the intestinal wars of Italy had also been the means of securing important possessions on the western mainland. In the south she still owned the five Apulian ports that had been ceded to her by Ferdinand of Aragon in return for assistance in driving the French from Naples.

382. **Venetian Possessions Invite Attack.**— But her very position of strength and external display drew upon her the jealousy and active ill will of certain powers whose cupidity was also excited by the prospect of gain at her cost. The

pope regarded with a wistful eye her possessions of Faenza, Rimini, and Ravenna, and he was angry at the refusal of Venice to allow one of his nephews to be raised to the See of Vicenza. The king of France was casting a covetous eye over Cremona, Bergamo and Brescia; Maximilian was filled with rage at their betraying to the French king his design of driving the French out of Italy, and was also viewing with eager eye the tempting bait of the five Apulian cities.

Venice thus became to these different states what China is to the present states of Europe, and a policy of partition was soon set on foot. In spite of some little difference between Margaret of Austria and Cardinal d' Amboise, who was then the prime minister of France, the League of Cambray was formed. Its members were Louis XII, Maximilian of Germany, Pope Julius II, and Ferdinand of Spain.

383. **The Defeat of Venice.**— The Venetian republic was undismayed. A large army was raised under the generalship of the Count of Petigliano, a man of skill and cautious tact, but in fire and impetuous dash, inferior to his second in command, d'Alviano. The French aided by the Swiss hastened to meet the Venetian army at Vaila. A decisive engagement ensued, in which the Venetians were completely routed. The French advanced even to the very walls of Venice. At the same time the papal troops took possession of the Venetian towns in the Romagna, while the emperor Maximilian seized the important places of Istria and Friuli.

Thus at one blow was shattered the fabric of continental dominion that had cost Venice over a century to erect. Her forces were scattered, her treasury was depleted, and France was already preparing a navy whose probable destination was the Adriatic.

384 **Venice Recovers From the Blow.**— But in the hour of deadly peril, Venice showed remarkable calmness and

extraordinary powers of recuperation. The city itself was by unprecedented efforts girded round with well-nigh impregnable defenses, and soon Venetian diplomacy combined with changing circumstances to dissolve the league altogether. With such a bitter enemy as France they felt it useless to negotiate, but by the offer of the city of Ravenna and by humble supplications for pardon they appealed both to the interest of Pope Julius as well as to his sense of personal dignity. Maximilian, it is true, refused to treat without the consent of France, but his languid prosecution of the war restored Padua to the Venetians, whose galleys began to menace even Friuli and Istria. At the same time, either through despair or more likely through the dictates of a far-seeing policy, Venice gave to her endangered states on the mainland complete independence. Her hitherto subject states were now bound to her by the strong ties of gratitude and affection, and it was not long before the remnant of the hostile league melted away like snow under the sun.

The results of the League of Cambray were exceedingly partial and transitory. It is true that the French, the pope, and the other members of the league got something. But the real strength of the Venetian Requblic still remained. Commercially, her trade was unimpaired. Politically, she still remained one of the five leading states of Italy. Her greatness, indeed, was not destined to last but this was owing not to the League of Cambray but to the transference of the old trade routes from the East.

385. **A New League** (1511) that was now formed out of the debris of the League of Cambray had for its object the expulsion of the French out of Italy. Its originator was Pope Julius II. He gained as his allies, Maximilian, Ferdinand the Catholic, Henry VIII of England, and even the Swiss who had hitherto been the close ally of France. France made a

vigorous resistance but the death of her able general Gaston de Foix at Ravenna in the very hour of victory turned the scales completely against her. The French were entirely driven out of Italy and thus lost the result of all their fifteen years' hard fighting and diplomacy.

Within a short time, the two chief actors in the struggle were removed from the scene by death. Pope Julius died in 1513 and Louis XII in 1515.

386. Leo X and Francis I. — Pope Julius was succeeded by Pope Leo X and Louis XII by Francis I. Both of these were men remarkable for ability and were conspicuous for their interest in other things besides politics. Leo X became celebrated for his humanistic tendencies, his patronage of the arts and learning and for the part which he took during the Protestant Reformation. Francis I was also the patron of art and learning not only in France but also throughout Europe. Erasmus received tokens of his appreciation and the great painter Leonardo da Vinci is supposed by some to have died in his arms.

Pope Leo X, famous for his splendid patronage of arts and learning.

Francis, however, was very far from being a mere cultivator of the muses. He was a politician of a very active type. Italy again became the theatre of French aggressions, and the reconquest of Milan became his first object. Opposing this was a remnant of the old anti-French alliance consisting of Spain, the pope, and the Swiss. But Venice was on the side

of France and engaged the attention of the Spaniards. The whole of the French army was thus free to fall upon the Swiss, and not only inflicted upon them a crushing defeat but also recaptured the city of Milan.

378. **Concordat Between Francis I and Pope Leo X.**— This ended the wars of French aggression in Italy. Francis I resumed his old friendly relations with the Swiss, and at Bologna drew up an important concordat (1516) with the pope. By this concordat, the first document of its kind, the interests of the national French church were made to harmonize with the welfare of the Church as a whole. To the temporal power was granted the right to confer upon bishops and abbots the temporal advantages connected with their office. To the spiritual power was reserved the right to confer holy orders; in other words, the pope had the right to confer or withhold that spiritual element by which alone the candidate might be raised to office. This concordat seemed so just and so according to the intrinsic fitness of things that it lasted three centuries. Though temporarily destroyed by the revolution it was revived again in 1802.

388. **England Under Henry VIII.**— The accession of Henry VIII to the English throne (1509) seemed to augur well for the prosperity of England. He was endowed with great natural ability, and was in many ways highly accomplished. As a statesman he had a shrewd insight into men's characters and could choose his ministers well. He was also capable of forming and successfully carrying out a broad and far-sighted policy. Together with all this he seemed a religious man, heard mass frequently and took interest in theological questions. The only evil symptom as yet discernible was a certain headstrong rashness of character pardonable in a royal youth.

389. Cardinal Wolsey.— The minister who at first more than any other guided Henry's policy was Cardinal Wolsey, a man of practical ability, with great influence over the king, and sagacious enough not to contradict his master's will when once it was made.

390. Foreign Politics.— Henry's first intervention in foreign politics was on the occasion of his joining the Holy League to drive the French out of Italy. He invaded France, won without effort the battle of Guinegate and took the towns of Tourraine and Theraunne. France, as usual, sought to attack England through Scotland. At the instigation of Francis, the Scotch crossed the Tweed and entered the north of England. They were met on Flodden Field by the English under the Earl of Surrey and were completely vanquished.

This engagement was practically the last of the war and England joined in the general peace. Peace was made between England and Scotland while the treaty between England and France was ratified by the marriage of Mary, the youngest sister of Henry VIII, to the old French king, who however did not long survive.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Charles VIII king of France — Reasons for his intervention in Italy — He ascends the throne of Naples — Formation of a hostile league against him — Charles now returns — Battle of Forovo — Results of Charles VIII's descent into Italy — Louis XII king of France — He also interferes in Italian politics — French again driven from Naples — Julius II now pope — Causes of the league of Cambray — Members of the league and their motives — War between Venice and the League —Heroic defence made by Venice — Results of the League of Cambray — Pope Julius forms a league against the French, who are driven from Italy — Pope Leo X and Francis I — Battle of Marignano — Concordat of Bologna — Character of Henry VIII — Cardinal Wolsey — Henry's foreign policy.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

JOHNSON, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century;* CAMBRIDGE, *Modern History;* CHEYNEY, *European Background;* DYE AND HASSALL, *Modern Europe;* LODGE, *History of Modern Europe;* MARTIN, *History of France;* DESREY, *les grands chroniques de Charles VIII;* BREWER, *History of Henry VIII;* POLLARD, *Henry VIII;* CREIGHTON, *Cardinal Wolsey;* CHELARD, *Charles VIII et l'éxpedition d'Italie.*

CHAPTER XIX

RIVALRY BETWEEN FRANCIS I AND THE EMPEROR CHARLES V

391. **Imperial Succession.**— The death of the Emperor Maximilian in 1519 was the beginning of a close contest between France and the empire — a contest that was destined to monopolize the politics of Europe for nearly twenty-five years.

The important question was, "Who shall succeed to the imperial throne?" The two possible candidates were Francis I of France and King Charles V of Spain, who, through the support of Cardinal Ximenes, had succeeded to the Spanish throne of his father, the late King Ferdinand. In favor of Charles, were the circumstances that he was a grandson of the late Maximilian and that Maximilian during his lifetime had tried to prepare the way for the future election of Charles. Francis, on the other hand, though not related to the late emperor was quite eligible for election and was in a strong position to enforce his claim to consideration. He had but lately won the battle of Marignano, and was at present on good terms with Pope Leo X.

392. **Charles V.**— The German descent of Charles as well as his more lavish use of bribes and promises brought over the electors to his favor. He was therefore on the twenty-eighth of June, 1519, elected emperor.

The election of Charles became of supreme importance in the general politics of Europe. He was already master of Spain, the Netherlands, Naples, Sicily, Austria, and the New World beyond the Atlantic. Together with all these vast territorial possessions, he now enjoyed that indefinite juris-

diction that the imperial dignity still retained over the German principalities.

393. **Character of Charles V.**— The personality of Charles at once became of paramount interest. His outward appearance was certainly not impressive. His bodily growth had been extremely slow, and even at the age of nineteen, when he was elected, he gave small promise of vigorous manhood. The feebleness of his health possibly accounted for his usual dejected appearance, while his thick, low-hanging underlip seemed to indicate extreme sluggishness of intellect. Nor did his speech, which was slow and hesitating, contradict the unfavorable impression received from his personal appearance.

But the inner self and character of Charles were by no means worthy of contempt. His mind was fairly well equipped with the knowledge necessary for a ruler of those times. He had a practical though superficial acquaintance with modern languages, and he had been carefully instructed in history and in the art of government. More important than these mental accomplishments was his character which was distinguished for a certain pertinacity that carried him successfully through many dangers and difficulties.

394. **Wars of Charles V. and Francis I.**— Almost as soon as the election became known the personal rivalry between himself and the French king was found to have received instead of a satisfactory solution, a fresh and rapidly gathering momentum. This personal quarrel was aggravated by long standing territorial disputes. Navarre, once French, was now in Spanish possession, so also was Naples. Charles, on the other hand, bitterly resented the loss of Milan recently taken by Francis I and he still remembered that Burgundy once formed part of the empire.

Hostilities were not long in breaking out, and in 1520 began the long war between France and the empire — a war which, with some few short intermissions lasted until the treaty of Crespy in 1544.

For convenience, these wars may be considered in three different periods. The first begins with the invasion of Navarre by the French in 1520 and extends down to the treaty of Cambray in 1529; the second begins with the French invasion of Savoy in 1536 and ends with the Truce of Nice in 1538; the third begins with French invasion of the Netherlands in 1542 and terminates with the Treaty of Crespy in 1544.

395. **The First Period.**— Even at the opening of the campaign the empire seemed to be fighting with overwhelming odds on her side. Not only were the territorial possessions exceedingly vast, while the Spainish infantry was considered the best in Europe, but Charles had succeeded in enlisting on his side the valuable aid of Henry VIII of England and of Pope Leo X. Yet the French did not hesitate to begin operations by invading Navarre. They took Pampeluna but were soon after repulsed and driven altogether out of Navarre. The scene of warfare was then changed to Italy. Here again the French were unsuccessful. Even if Lautrec their commander had been as able as he was energetic, the coalition that he had to face was overwhelming. The Swiss, under the pay of the pope, were turning against him; even the Venetians were now unfriendly. It was no wonder, therefore, that the imperial troops speedily drove the French out of Milan and the Lombardian plain. Nor were matters improved by the death of Leo X and the accession of Pope Clement VII, a former tutor and personal friend of the emperor (1523). The overwhelming success of the French had become the cause of their ultimate failure in Italy.

396. **Mutual Invasions.**— As if this array of external foes in Italy was not sufficient, Francis was now harassed by the rebellion of one of his most powerful subjects in the person of Charles of Bourbon, Duke of Montpensier and the owner of more territory than any other of the vassals of Francis. He at once proposed to Henry VIII of England and to the emperor a joint invasion of France. His plans, it is true, were discovered and he had to fly before the plot was matured. But the idea of invading France must have appeared to the emperor not only justified by all the odds in his favor but as the most likely means of bringing the entire war to a sudden and victorious termination. The invasion was made but the expectations were not realized. The imperial forces laid siege to Marseilles but had to beat a speedy retreat. Francis in his turn became elated and carried the war into the enemy's country by besieging the town of Pavia. His attack on the emperor failed even more miserably than the attack of the emperor on him. He suffered an overwhelming defeat in the course of which he himself was taken prisoner.

397. **Treaty of Madrid.**— This military success, the first real blow of the campaign produced a diplomatic revolution. As after the league of Cambray, the French drew upon themselves the jealousy and hostility of the other powers, so now the sudden overwhelming success of Charles created a corresponding feeling against the Spaniards. Not only in Rome and Venice, but even in the English court as well, there rose a strong tide of feeling against the Spaniard. And this hostility was in no way lessened by the harsh terms of the treaty of Madrid (1526) imposed by Charles on the captive king. The terms were: The abandonment of all claims on Naples, Milan, Flanders, and Artois, the restoration of the Duchy of Burgundy and a marriage between Francis himself and Charles' sister, the dowager queen of Portugal. As security

for his fidelity Francis had to yield two of his sons as hostages.

The ink on the paper was scarcely dry when Francis resolved to disregard the treaty. In fact, Francis had signed it under compulsion and could scarcely be expected to carry through a forced contract of such an odious nature. His contention was upheld, and France, Florence, Milan, England, and the Swiss entered into another Holy League for the purpose of forcing the emperor to release the French princes and return the city of Milan to Francesco Sforza.

398. Capture of Rome.— But the league was loose in its construction and as a consequence, its operations were slow and ineffective. The imperial troops were able to strike a bold and sudden blow. They marched to Rome, took possession of the city and even imprisoned Pope Clement VII. This success caused even wider and deeper impression than the battle of Pavia. Florence and Venice now joined the league and the French at once adopted a more vigorous plan of campaign. The French general, Lautrec, and the Genoese admiral, Doria, besieged the city of Naples by sea, and with every prospect of success. But the French managed to offend Doria just at this critical time. He withdrew his fleet from the siege with the result that Naples still remained in the hands of the emperor.

399. Treaty of Cambray.— The hopelessness of striving against the strength and good fortune of the emperor were apparent. All were longing for peace. In 1529 was signed the treaty of Cambray, sometimes called Ladies' treaty, because negotiated by Margaret of Austria and Louisa of Saxony. The terms of the treaty of Madrid were adopted as the basis of the new treaty. But Charles agreed to waive his claim on Burgundy and to accept a ransom of two million

crowns for the liberation of his two sons who had been detained as hostages.

Even this treaty was too humiliating to French pride. Moreover, the balance of power in Europe still remained in jeopardy owing to the preponderating strength of Charles V. Hostilities were bound to break out again and during the next few years France braced up her strength for another struggle.

French diplomacy soon showed itself more successful than French military skill. A marriage was arranged between Catharine de Medicis, the pope's niece, and the Duke of Orleans. By this marriage an alliance was thus effected between France and Florence, while the pope himself would now naturally regard the interests of France as connected with those of his family.

400. **Second Period of the War.**— It was not long before the religious difficulties in Germany gave France a favorable opportunity to strike. A pretext was not wanting. A French ambassador on his way to Milan in order to intrigue against the emperor was put to death. Francis at once sent an army to overrun Savoy and Piedmont, and had no scruple in allaying himself with Charles' enemy, the Turk. The imperial troops were speedily driven out and the French occupied Savoy and Piedmont. Charles was deeply angered and sought revenge by carrying hostilities into France itself. His troops laid siege to the important towns of Arles and Marseilles. But operations in hostile territory are generally dependent for success upon their speedy accomplishment. The French avoided a pitched battle and merely held the cities. Charles being far away from his base of supplies was forced to retreat with humiliation and great losses.

It soon became evident to both sides that neither party had any prospect of accomplishing anything by a prolongation of

hostilities. The presence of the Turk also inclined both sides to seek for peace. While Francis was anxious to dissolve a pagan alliance that had brought on him the unpopularity of Europe, Charles was anxious for peace in order that he might be able to check the advance of the Turks.

401. **A Truce** for two years was arranged at Nice (1538). Hostilities were to cease at once, and it was arranged that both parties were to retain their mutual conquests.

A curious change now took place in the personal relations of the two antagonists. Personal friendship now seemed to take the place of personal animosity. Not only were friendly visits interchanged but the French king gave solid proofs of his good will. When Charles' rebellious subjects in Ghent wished to betray the city into the hands of the French king, the offer was rejected and even disclosed to Charles. Later on, he performed for Charles a still more signal service. When Charles on his way from Spain to the Low Countries wished to pass through France, Francis not only consented but treated his host with sumptuous hospitality. Charles out of gratitude that was either real or feigned promised to yield to the dauphin Henry the possession of Milan.

When Charles, however, had completed his expedition he ignored the promise. Francis was bitterly chagrined and accordingly bent on revenge.

In 1541 Charles again waged war on the infidel. Contrary to the advice of his admiral, he sailed for Algiers, and after building a fort on a hill close to the town, began to besiege the city. But, on land, his troops were visited by fever and on sea his fleet was shattered by a furious storm, Charles himself had only a narrow escape and with a few ships returned to Spain.

402. **Third Period.**— Even before Charles had started on this ill-starred expedition, Francis had begun hostilities. The

war was fought with varying success. Operations were carried on in Rousillon, Flanders and Piedmont, but nothing decisive occurred till the battle of Cerisoles in Piedmont where the imperial troops were beaten. On the other hand, Charles advanced into Champagne and Henry VIII attacked Boulogne. If Charles had pursued the campaign to the end it is probable that France would have been at his mercy. But when only two days' march from the city of Paris he suddenly changed his mind and decided on peace. Possibly he still dreaded the Turks, probably he was harassed by the troubles with his Protestant subjects at home. Whatever his motives may have been Francis now in a dangerous position was equally willing to come to terms.

403. **The Treaty of Crespy** was signed (1544) between the two sovereigns. This treaty, unlike the two others, gave to France reasonable satisfaction. It is true that she still had to renounce all claim to Naples, Flanders, and Artois, but on the other hand, Charles made a formal renunciation of the Duchy of Burgundy. Milan remained in the emperor's hands but the French by way of compensation were not called upon to surrender Savoy and Piedmont.

404. **General Survey of the War.**— In reviewing the whole course of the war, one cannot but marvel at the pertinacity and powers of resistance shown by the French king. The odds against him were almost overwhelming, the blows that were dealt on him seemed fatal and yet he always rose again undaunted and full of confidence in the result. His magnanimity was equal to his courage. Even after Charles' apparent perfidy in repudiating the treaty of Madrid he could still afford to present the hand of friendship to his dangerous rival.

His own subjects had reason to be grateful for his reign.

He had successfully defended the frontiers of France, and had greatly improved the condition of the army. Some of his financial expedients may have been open to question but the treasury was able to meet the severe demands that were made upon it and to keep up the popular magnificence of his court. He also found time to extend throughout the kingdom that powerful centralized system of government that in a few years' time was to be the main cause of the extraordinary power and prosperity of France.

405. **England's Foreign Policy.**— The foreign policy of England during this war had been mainly under the control of Cardinal Wolsey. At the beginning of the war England had taken the side of the emperor and after the battle of Pavia, there seemed to be a fair prospect of using the weakness of France for an invasion and reconquest. But the doctrine of the balance of power seems now to have been the prevailing consideration. Peace was now made between France and England, and friendly relations remained between the two countries until the marriage of Madelaine, daughter of the French king, with James V of Scotland. This marriage roused the king's jealousy of Scotland and seemed to recall the days when the Scotch-French alliance had done so much harm to England. While Henry became thus estranged from the French court, a renewed understanding grew up between him and the emperor, which as we have already seen, resulted in their joint invasion of France just before the treaty of Crespy.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Rivalry between Francis I and Charles V for the imperial throne — Chances on both sides — Election of Charles — His character — Further causes of dispute between him and Francis — First period of the war of 1522 to 1529 — War in Spain and Italy — Failure first of the Spanish then of the French invasions

— The diplomatic revolution — Treaty of Madrid — League formed against the imperial forces — Second discomfiture of the French — Treaty of Cambray — Renewed preparations for war — Second Period of the war 1536 to 1538 — Failure of Charles' invasion of France — Truce of Nice — Personal friendship between Charles and Francis — Third Period of the War — 1538–1544 — Germans and English invade France — Treaty of Crespy — General survey of the course of the war — Foreign policy of England — Alternate unfriendliness and friendliness with England.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

KITCHIN, *History of France;* JOHNSON, *Europe in Sixteenth Century;* ZELLER, *l'Histoire de France;* ARMSTRONG, *The Emperor Charles V;* ROBERTSON, *History of the Reign of Emperor Charles V;* HUME, *The Spanish People;* MAXWELL, *Cloister Life of Charles V;* For English History, same as in preceding chapter.

CHAPTER XX

THE REFORMATION

406. Beginning and Nature of the Reformation.— During the wars between Francis and Charles, there was slowly increasing both in volume and in intensity the religious movement that goes by the name of the Reformation. The contest between Charles and Francis and the Reformation chronologically occupied the same time, and in two or three points they touched one another. But they were quite different in their nature and on the whole distinctly separate in their workings.

By the Reformation is meant the great separation or schism from the Catholic Church. This separation began about the commencement of the sixteenth century and has lasted even down to our own times.

There is perhaps scarcely any subject that has aroused so much controversy as the Reformation. Catholic and Protestant writers naturally take opposite views. Catholic writers regard it as an apostasy from the true faith while Protestants maintain that it was only a return to the belief and practice of primitive Christianity. The historian, however, has very little to do with this theological aspect of the question. His purpose is to investigate the historical narrative accounts of the Reformation, and after a careful investigation of written authorities to lay bare its causes and effects.

We will consider, first of all, the causes of the Reformation, then its historical expansion and its effects in the most important countries.

The causes of the Reformation may be divided into two

great groups, religious and secular. Both of these groups ought to be separately considered.

407. Religious Causes of the Reformation.— In viewing the Reformation as a whole, the fact that looms most prominently into view is that no less than one-fourth of the entire population of Europe left the Catholic faith. In some countries like England, Scotland, Sweden, Denmark and the northern parts of Germany, the great majority of the population became Protestant; in other countries like Hungary and certain lesser German states, a part of the population became Protestant, the rest remaining Catholic. Purely political causes could scarcely account for this fact and there is evidence to show there were also certain religious causes that partly explain why so many people, in some countries under no compulsion, abandoned the religion of their forefathers.

408. Abuses and Scandals in the Church.— It is undeniable that at that time there were great abuses and scandals in the Church. Catholic historians who also believe that the holiness of the Catholic Church does not depend upon the sanctity of any individual member or group of members, have concurred upon this point. The testimony of persons who were by no means among the ranks of reformers, the sermons of Savonarola, the heroic efforts of popes and councils to put down abuses, the results of investigations of apostolic visitors, and the denunciations of St. Vincent Ferrer and of others are all evidence in the same direction. In England also we find the same evidence; for example, the Archbishop of Canterbury in 1415 severely denounced certain clerics for the worldliness of their lives.

It is, however, easy to exaggerate the evil. In all times the Church councils have been wont to assume a critical attitude and the very efforts on the part of ecclesiastics to cor-

rect abuses shows that the evil was not universal. Moreover, throughout Europe there were numbers of people eminent for their piety and sanctity. Even in Germany, the home of the Reformation, we come across the mystic brotherhoods or Friends of God, who, while leading a contemplative life tried to influence the world by their teaching and example. Besides these there were also saintly teachers like Gerson and St. Thomas à Kempis, whose presence also tended to neutralize the supposed gloomy wickedness of those times. We may safely conclude that even on the verge of Reformation there were not wanting teachers to guide and examples to edify.

Yet there were certainly abuses, in certain localities, and the constant sight of recurring scandals does tend of its own nature to weaken the religious conviction and to bring the church into evil repute.

409. **The Art of Printing and the Reformation.**— Much has been said regarding the dissemination by the art of printing of the knowledge of the sacred Scriptures. This supposed cause, however, is hardly commensurate with the magnitude of its effects. The art of printing only became known about fifty years before Luther's appearance, and it would take a considerable time to make the great mass of the people acquainted with the results of the new invention. Besides this, even during the middle ages the people were not cut off entirely from Biblical instruction. Not only were there manuscript copies of the Bible circulated among the people but for a small sum there could be procured what was called "The Poor Man's Bible." This consisted of a series of rough wood prints that tried to convey a knowledge of the Bible pictorially. In England especially one of the reasons why Biblical translations were opposed was that already there existed versions of the Bible in the vernacular.

410. **Secular Causes of the Reformation.**— One of the causes of the Reformation was an economic one. A great number of Italian prelates were entrusted with benefices in Germany, France, and England. By this means large sums of money found their way out of the national coffers into other channels. In addition to this, grievous taxes were imposed on many of the bishops who in their turn had to lean heavily on the lower clergy. The complaints of the English parliament under Henry III, as well as the protest of the German and French clergy, testify to the presence of this evil.

411. **Jealousy of the Clergy.**— Then there was the jealousy entertained by secular magnates of the power and influence of ecclesiastical statesmen. In England this is illustrated by the ardent attack made upon the wealthy clergy by the nobles during the fourteenth century and later on under Henry VIII, by the antipathy shown by the English nobles to the landed influence of the great clerics; in Germany again the wealth and jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical states had aroused the cupidity and envy of many of the secular rulers.

412. **The Undefined Jurisdiction of Church and State** was another secular cause of the reformation. We have seen that the Investiture question was only a part of this great problem — which during the sixteenth century still demanded an urgent solution. Such details as appointment of Church officials, marriages, wills, divorces — all these still presented difficulties and there was naturally a tendency on the part of the lay element to shake itself free from the activity of the spiritual authority.

413. **The Political Element Most Effective.**— Finally, the religious element of discord in many nations found a powerful instrument of expression by allying itself with the element of

civil and political discord. Thus in Germany Protestantism allied itself with the element of discontent against imperial authority; in Geneva it allied itself with the democratic element for the overthrow of its princely rulers; in England, on the other hand, it formed under Thomas Cromwell's subtle policy an instrument for extending the royal authority.

A careful examination of the whole course of the Reformation with its interwoven web of religious and political causes will reveal the fact that the political element was the predominant factor in giving to the Reformation its wide and sudden success. In countries like Spain, Italy, and France, where the religious element of the Reformation was almost exclusively predominant we find that the reforming movement either lead a languid existence or died out altogether. Certainly the religious element played a very important and an essential part. But what gave fixity and continuity to the movement seems to have been the political element.

414. Local Characteristics of the Reformation.— The Reformation throughout the different areas of its activity had no universal common characteristics. It assumed in each locality distinctly peculiar traits. We will, therefore, consider the Reformation, taking one by one the most important kingdoms in which it appeared.

415. Luther in Germany.— The disturbing political and religious forces in Germany found their exploding point in Martin Luther. He was born at Eisleben in Saxony (1483). After some schooling at Eisenach he went to the University of Erfurt. There he gave evidence of considerable talent and industry, but showed an extraordinary restlessness of mind. On leaving the university, he joined the Augustinian friars and during his stay amongst them studied deeply the Bible and the works of St. Augustine. He was especially interested

in St. Augustine's doctrine of justification by faith. Placing his own interpretation upon that doctrine he said that St. Augustine taught that faith alone could justify. His doctrines proceeded from the twofold meaning that can be given to the word "faith." Faith may mean merely the assent to some supernatural truth and it may also mean that firm persuasion of the truth that can alone influence a man's practical life. Luther seems to have imagined that St. Augustine used the word "faith" in the former sense.

416. **Luther's Attack on Indulgencies.**— Whatever may have been the private opinions of Luther at that period, what brought him first of all into public notice was his attack on the practice of granting of indulgences. An indulgence is the remission of the ancient canonical penance imposed by the Church in ancient times by way of satisfaction for certain sins. This remission could only be granted on certain conditions, and in later times one of these conditions was the giving of money for pious purposes. It is easy to see that in degenerate times this practice might lead to abuses. And in Germany especially these abuses were of a very objectionable character. No one could blame Luther for protesting as he did against these abuses. Nor did he exceed the limits when he indignantly affixed ninety-five theses to the door of the church at Wittenberg. But some of these propositions attracted attention for their intemperate character and the violence that they did to the doctrinal notions of those times.

417. **Controversy Between Luther and Ecke.**— The manifesto at once brought into existence two hostile camps most bitterly opposed to each other. Some loudly applauded his act, others denounced the newness of his doctrines. In the year 1519 at Leipzig, before a numerous and august assembly there took place a disputation between Luther and a certain

learned Dr. Ecke, each being surrounded by his own supporters. The discussion was long and quaint in its character. Some of the bystanders we are told fell to blows, others slept. On the whole, Dr. Ecke, a big man, gifted with a stentorian voice and a remarkable flow of words seems to have won the day.

Dr. Ecke did not let the matter drop but went in person to Rome and urged Pope Leo X to take urgent measures against the audacious reformer who had now denounced not only the doctrine of indulgences but other Catholic doctrines as well.

418. **Luther Defies the Pope.**— The result was the issue of a papal bull which condemned Luther's writings and ordered his books to be burned. Luther who up till now had seemed submissive, if not obsequious to papal authority replied by defiance. He publicly separated himself from the Church and burned the pope's letter. The pope then urged the emperor to take up the matter. Therefore in 1521 there took place the celebrated Diet at Worms.

419. **Diet of Worms.**— Luther stood before the emperor, the electors, the bishops, the dukes, and the other dignitaries of the empire and was asked if he would retract his views. His answer was a defense of what he had upheld and an appeal to the Scriptures. The emperor then dismissed him as a heretic and shortly afterward placed him under the ban of the empire.

Luther, while driving in a coach from the assembly was stopped by a band of armed men in a dark forest and was taken to a castle at Wartburg. This was a ruse on the part of his protector, the Elector of Saxony, in order to remove Luther from the violence of his enemies. It was during his retirement here that Luther wrote the translation of the Bible.

The Diet of Worms.

From a literary point of view, this was important. It did for the German language very much what the old English Bible has done for the English. It tended to lift the native tongue up to the level of a classic language, giving to it a peculiar simplicity and grandeur entirely its own.

420. **The Knights' War (1523).**—The religious strife soon began to draw into its vortex also the discontented political elements. The lesser knights in Germany were the only class excluded from partaking in the deliberations of the Diet. This they had always bitterly resented. At length, their long discontent was excited into open warfare by some of the tenets of Luther which advocated the confiscation of Church property. Then their cupidity combined with their desire for power to urge them to action. The standard of revolt was raised by Franz Von Sickingen the owner of numerous castles along the Rhine. But Luther, whom they took to be their friend became their most jealous opponent. He upheld the cause of the upper princes and this opposition is important since it gave to the political aspect of the German Reformation an aristocratic character.

421. **The Peasants' Outbreak (1525).**— The same policy characterized Luther's attitude on the occasion of the peasants' revolt. The peasants were then the most oppressed class in Germany. Not only were the burdens laid upon them by their feudal lords grievously heavy, but they were unable to make their economic condition correspond with the advance of the times. The other classes of society were rapidly advancing in wealth and comfort. But the caste system of feudalism kept them in their old condition and tied them helpless to the soil. Also the diversion of the old trade routes must for the time have occasioned considerable depression of trade. It was not long before the peasants seemed to find in Luther's

writings a direct encouragement to revolt. But Luther disappointed them as he had disappointed the knights. He even urged the princes to crush the rebellion with fire and sword, and was regardless of the fact that some of their demands were copied word for word from his own writings.

422. **Edict of Spires (1526).**—At the same time, the religious strife began to assume a more geographical shape. At the Diet of Spires it was enacted that in each state the religion of the people should be decided by the will of their ruler. This edict was another barrier, if any such were needed, in the way of the formation of German unity. Religion itself was now added to the numerous jealousies and petty strifes between state and state.

423. **Confession of Augsburg (1530)** still further accentuated the discordant condition of affairs. The German Protestants drew up their formal confession of faith and soon after began to form their mutual league against the Catholic states of Germany. For they soon perceived that they would have to uphold their contention by force. The league was called after the name of the place where they met "The League of Schmalkalde."

424. **French Intervention (1552).**— The League at Schmalkalde and the war that afterwards broke out between the Catholic and Protestant forces of Germany began to affect even the foreign politics of Germany. Henry II was then reigning in France and to him the Protestant party under its able leader Maurice of Saxony appealed for support. Henry II consented but only at a heavy price. The cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun in Lorraine were to be placed under the protection of the French. It was not long before the French king obtained a still firmer footing on German soil. The

protectorate became changed into a military occupation. From that time the French occupation of Lorraine has always been the cause of irritation between France and Germany and was not terminated even by the late Franco-German war.

425. **Religious Peace of Augsburg.**—In 1555 the contending religious parties agreed to a compromise called the Treaty of Augsburg. The main provisions of this treaty were, first, that each prince was to choose the religion for himself and his subjects; second, the Lutherans were to be tolerated and admitted in equal numbers with the Catholics to the Imperial Chambers; thirdly, the Church property that had been secularized before 1552 was to remain so.

This treaty formed the basis of religious life in Germany for the succeeding fifty years. It was not until 1618 that religious strife again began to break out in the Thirty Years' War.

426. **The Reformation in Geneva.**— The Reformation in Germany was mainly indebted for its success to its aristocratic character. Not only was its system of government thoroughly aristocratic but the political element in Germany with which it blended consisted of the princes and higher magnates. In Geneva, we behold the reforming movement under another aspect. It was democratic in its form and it blended with the democratic element of the community.

Geneva, in the early part of the sixteenth century was subject to a triple jurisdiction. It had a municipal government of its own but was also subject to the bishop of Geneva and to the Duke of Savoy. A triangular duel seems frequently to have been the result. Just about this time, the bishop and the duke were trying to annex the city to the duchy of Savoy. Naturally the burghers resisted and it was also natural that the doctrines of the Reformation if they

once found their way there would find in the independent burgher a very suitable soil for their development.

427. **John Calvin** was the man who brought together the several elements of resistance. He was a native of Noyon in the south of France. He was a man of brilliant gifts, as well acquainted with the Scriptures as with the classics. He had also great powers of organization and he certainly had far more constructive ability than Luther.

No doubt, his early studies must have been such as to bring out more fully the peculiar gifts of his mind. For he had not only undergone a theological training but had also been preparing himself for the practice of the law.

While studying in Paris, he came in contact with the doctrines of the reformers of Wittenberg. His mind was quickly lead away from the Church and he openly advocated the doctrines of Luther. But he was not by any means a mere receptive disciple. He elaborated a system of his own which he partly exposed in his "Institutes of the Christian Religion."

The fame of Calvin soon spread, and some of the reformers in Switzerland invited him to share in their labors. He accepted their invitation and went to Geneva (1536).

428. **Calvin's Doctrine.**— The doctrines of Calvin differed considerably from those of Luther. Unlike Luther he rejected transubstantiation altogether, that is to say, he maintained that at the mass the bread and wine are just the same after as before the consecration. He also differed from Luther in regard to the doctrine of the development of predestination. But the free will as taught by Calvin is a self-contradiction since he maintained that some being predestined to damnation are consequently unable to do otherwise than commit sin. On the other hand, certain doctrines of

Luther were accepted by Calvin but in a more exaggerated form. Thus it was maintained by Calvin that faith assures not only justification but also salvation. Calvin was also more thorough than Luther in the violence of his attacks on the Catholic Church and rejected altogether its festivals and ritualistic forms.

429. **Organization of Calvinism.**— Second, the organization of the Church established by Calvin differed entirely from that of Luther's. While Luther placed all power in the hands of the princes, Calvin placed it in the hands of the people. The Church as founded by Calvin was essentially democratic in its origin and in its constitution. While, however, all power was supposed to be derived from the people, the actual administration of government was confided to a permanent council called "The Consistorial Court of Discipline." This council consisted of both pastors and laymen, and it had supreme jurisdiction in all Church matters and general morals.

Evidently a simple organization of this kind would only suit a small area like that of Geneva, and it was reserved for John Knox in Scotland to draw up a more elaborate Church organization. In his Constitution, not only was there a General Assembly consisting of representatives from the local assemblies but there was also a hierarchy of smaller councils such as provincial synods, presbyteries and Church sessions.

430. **Political Elements of Calvinism.**— This strong democratic character of the Calvinistic Church intensified any opposition that might be made by the people to the established government. Thus the Huguenots in France, the English Puritans under the Stuarts, the Scotch Presbyterians under Queen Mary, and the Protestants of the northern Netherlands, all as we shall see, derived a considerable support and

incitement against the ruling government from the democratic and unreserved nature of Calvin's doctrines.

431. **The Reformation in England.**— The Reformation in England differed from the Reformation in Germany and Geneva in two important respects. First, the immediate exciting cause of the Reformation was not the attitude of the people but the policy of the king and his ministers. Secondly, the change of faith in England was effected not in co-operation with but in spite of the tendency of the great majority of the people. Nothing indeed is more conspicuous than the way in which the Catholics in England clung pertinaciously to their faith and yet on the other hand were seemingly overwhelmed by the force of circumstances.

432. **Henry VIII and His Divorces.**— Henry VIII had, by a papal dispensation married Katharine of Aragon who had been the wife of his deceased brother Arthur. After seventeen years of married life Henry VIII began to have scruples as to the legality of this marriage. His eagerness for the dissolution of the tie between himself and Katharine was also increased by his ardent affection for Anne Boleyn, a maid of honor to the queen. Henry submitted the question to the pope, who appointed a commission to inquire into the case. The members composing the commission were Cardinal Wolsey, the king's minister, and Cardinal Campeggio the papal legate. But the commission purposely delayed the business. So at the advice of Archbishop Cranmer, Henry referred the question to the universities of Europe. Their decision was prompt but unfavorable. Only Oxford and Cambridge pronounced in its favor. In the meantime the king had grown angry at the wilful delays of the papal court and was disposed to lay the blame on Cardinal Wolsey. In spite of Wolsey's efforts to placate the king, he was dismissed

from office and soon after died wishing "that he had served his God as faithfully as he had served his king."

433. **Thomas Cromwell.**— A new minister now took the place of Wolsey. This was Thomas Cromwell and it was he who suggested to the king that series of decisive steps by which gradually the Reformation was introduced into England.

The personality of Thomas Cromwell is interesting. He had led a roving and an adventurous life. His early years were spent in Italy where he engaged his services as a hired soldier. But his mind was of no common type. In the midst of his active occupations he found time to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the dark and tortuous methods of Italian diplomacy, especially was he deeply versed in all the maxims of Machiavelli. After leaving Italy, he spent some time in Holland as a clerk. From Holland, he returned to England where he entered the service of Cardinal Wolsey. His experience of the men and manners of Europe, his thorough training in statecraft, all tended to cultivate to the utmost his matchless ingenuity of mind and his utter ruthlessness of character.

Such was the man who at this moment took his place at the helm of state. It was evident that no half-hearted measures could be expected from him. He boldly advised the king to sever all connection between England and Rome, to make his own royal self head of the Church in England and in that new capacity to dissolve the marriage with Katharine.

434. **Separation of England From Rome.**— Henry followed his advice. By a succession of rapid strides England was severed from Rome. Henry set aside Katharine by his own royal authority and married Anne Boleyn. Finally contributions to the papal treasury were cut off and no more appeals

were to be made to Rome. Henry was declared Supreme Head of the Church in England (1534). All religious houses were suppressed and their temporalities handed over to laymen. Even the secular clergy were brought entirely under the control of the self-assumed spiritual power of the king, for none could preach without a license and even the licensed preachers were restricted in the topics of their sermons.

Those who resisted this policy in any way were pitilessly destroyed. The very highest in the land received the fiercest blows. Thomas More, the favorite chancellor of the king, one of the highest representatives of the New Learning and eminent for his loyalty and piety, was asked to acknowledge the spiritual supremacy of the king. He refused and had to pay the penalty on the scaffold. Bishop Fisher of Rochester, illustrious alike for his learning and for his sanctity met with a similar fate. And with these perished many others convicted of the new treason of denying the spiritual supremacy of the king.

435. **Pilgrimage of Grace.**— But Englishmen on the whole were reluctant to accept the change. Especially in the northern parts of England they clung obstinately to the faith of their fathers. An armed revolt was organized by the Catholic nobles, a revolt that went by the name of Pilgrimage of Grace (1536). At one time, the insurgents were so numerous and so well organized that the government was in imminent peril. But by a false promise they were induced to separate, and wholesale executions ruthlessly stamped out all traces of the movement.

436. **The Six Articles.**— While England was thus being violently parted from the communion with the See of Rome both Henry and the majority of his subjects still held fast

to a great number of the old Catholic doctrines. In 1539 was passed the act of "The Six Articles." By this act all were required to believe in, first, the Real Presence; secondly, Communion under one kind; thirdly, celibacy of the clergy; fourthly, the binding nature of vows of chastity; fifthly, the lawfulness of private masses, and sixthly, auricular confession.

437. **Edward VI and the Reform Movement.**— When Henry VIII died and Edward VI, his son, ascended the throne (1547) even the Catholic element tended to become eliminated. This was chiefly owing to the activity of Archbishop Cranmer who had altogether left the Catholic faith, and to the active policy of the Earl of Warwick who was Protector of the kingdom on account of the king's minority. A Protestant catechism and a Protestant book of homilies were drawn up and their use ordered in all the churches. In 1552, were formulated forty-two articles of religion, afterwards reduced to thirty-nine, and all the clergymen, church-wardens and schoolmasters had to subscribe to these articles.

Queen Mary.

438. **Catholic Reaction Under Queen Mary.**— With the accession of the Catholic queen Mary (1553) there was a reaction in favor of Catholicism. Catholic worship was again restored, and in 1554 the two houses of Parliament resolved by a formal vote to return to the obedience of the Holy See. Cardinal Pole, who had been sent by the pope to receive the submission of the kingdom was solemnly received by the two

Houses of Parliament and his words of absolution were received on bended knees (1554).

439. **Queen Elizabeth.**— But this reaction lasted only as long as the reign of Queen Mary. When she died in 1558, Elizabeth, her sister, succeeded to the throne. Her own opinions were in favor of the reformed doctrines. This was clearly shown by her attitude even from the outset. As early as 1559 she gave permission for part of the Church service to be read in Latin, while in the same year there followed measures still more unmistakable in their character. The supremacy over things spiritual was restored to the crown. All payments of money to Rome were abolished and the book of Common Prayer as established by Edward VI was with certain alterations, restored and prescribed for general usage.

So far the attitude of Elizabeth had been one of impartiality both to the new religion and the old. She was naturally indifferent in religious matters and her wish would have been to hold the balance evenly between the two religious parties. But political circumstances almost forced her hand. Mary, Queen of Scotland, who had married the Dauphin of France, openly claimed the English throne. Her claims were the more dangerous on account of the alliance between Scotland and France, and the possible sympathies of the Catholic party in England. Besides this political complication, while the Protestant party were urgent in demanding war upon Spain, the Catholics with the Duke of Norfolk at their head were as earnest in favor of a steady peace with that country.

440. **Elizabeth Completes the Separation of England From Rome.**— The flight of Mary Queen of Scots from her rebellious subjects into England, the conspiracies that were set on foot to raise her to the throne, her execution in 1587, and

the consequent invasion of England by the Spanish fleet — all combined with the anti-Catholic feeling throughout the country to change a negative attitude into one of a severe persecution of the Catholics. It was declared treason to introduce papal bulls into the realm; all magistrates and public officers had to subscribe to the articles of faith. Catholic laymen who refused to attend the Protestant service were punished by fines, and Catholic priests were imprisoned and sent to the gibbet. These severe measures produced their intended effect of weakening Catholicism in England. They also combined with the other causes already mentioned to create a tradition of hostility against Catholicism—a tradition which has lasted even down to our own times.

Queen Elizabeth.

The reign of Elizabeth may be said to have completed the work of the Reformation in England. The security of the throne, the safety of the country from internal conspiracy and from foreign invasion were things that seemed to be incompatible with Catholicism. At the same time Protestantism was firmly organizing itself inwardly, and under succeeding reigns there gradually grew up the Anglican Church such as we see it at the present day.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

The Reformation defined — Its controversial aspects — Religious causes of the Reformation — Abuses existing in the church — Danger of exaggerating the extent of these abuses —

Printing of the Sacred Scriptures not a sufficient cause — Secular causes of the Reformation — Heavy taxes laid on the clergy — Jealousy entertained by lay rulers of the clerical influence and wealth — The political elements of discord in different nations. Reformation in Germany — Early career of Martin Luther — His attack on abuses connected with indulgences — Formation of two hostile parties — Leo X condemns Luther's doctrines — Diet of Worms — Luther's retirement in Saxony — The Knights' War — The Peasants' Revolt — Edict of Spiers — Confession of Augsburg — French Intervention — Religious Peace of Augsburg — Reformation in Geneva — Its political nature — Triple government in Geneva — Early career of Calvin — Calvin's arrival in Geneva and his activity there — Difference between the doctrines of Luther and those of Calvin — Difference between the organization of the Lutherans and that of the Calvinists — Democratic organization of the Calvinists — Reformation in England — Conservatism of the English Catholics — Rise of the divorce question — Thomas Cromwell — Strong policy of Cromwell — Separation of England from the Catholic Church — Martyrdom of Thomas More and of Cardinal Fisher — Resistance of the Catholic nobles in the North of England — the Six Articles — Accession of Edward VI to the English throne — Further development of Protestantism — Catholic reaction under Queen Mary — Queen Elizabeth and her religious policy — Active persecution of the Catholics brought about by political as well as religious causes — Execution of Mary Queen of Scots and the consequences thereof.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

KOSTLEN, *Lutner;* RANKE, *Lives of the Popes;* SEEBOHM, *Protestant Revolution;* BEARD, *Luther;* HAUSSER, *Period of the Reformation;* CAMBRIDGE, *Modern History;* FISHER, *Reformation;* ALZOG, *Church History;* SPALDING, *History of the Protestant Reformation;* PERRY, *Reformation in England;* FROUDE, *History of England;* GASQUET, *Eve of the Reformation;* SEEBOHM, *Oxford reformers;* CREIGHTON, *Age of Elizabeth;* BLUNT, *Reformation of the Church in England;* GASQUET, *Henry VIII and the English Monasteries;* VOGEL, *Bibliotheca biographica lutherana;* C. ULMAN, *Reformatoren vor der Reformation;* MARTIN LUTHER, *Werke* (Weimar); MERLE D'AUBIGNE, *Histoire de la Reformation en Europe au Temps de Calvin;* DUFUR, *Le Catechisme de Calvin;* MIGNE, *Établissement de la Reforme religieuse a Généve* (Paris); JOHN FOXE, *History of Acts and monuments of the church.*

CHAPTER XXI

THE CATHOLIC REFORMATION

441. Conditions Inside the Church.— Having considered the fortunes of those who separated themselves from the Catholic Church we may now consider the important movements that were taking place inside the Catholic Church. The sight of such numbers fallen away from the Church speedily convinced those who remained within the fold of the necessity of an urgent reform. It would not be fair, however, to attribute the cause of this reform to Protestantism alone. Some have done this and have therefore called the reform inside the Catholic Church the counter-reformation. But even before the triumph of Protestantism, there had been a reforming party inside the Church. The efforts of popes and councils and the protests of saints sufficiently testify to the presence of a reforming element inside the Church. Even as regards doctrine, there had existed inside the Church a liberal but orthodox party that in matters as yet undefined held freer opinions.

But this reforming element inside the Church had not succeeded in fully working out its way. It must be remembered that society in those times was only partially organized. Movements and agitations of any kind were slow to work their way. The Church also in its outward body reflected the character of the period. There were still remnants of feudalism in the Church, such for example, as the large estates held by the clergy. It required some strong upheaval, in fact, nothing short of a revolution to enable her to throw off the fetters and impediments of the medieval past. This partly explains the reason why the reform in the Catholic

Church was subsequent to and not antecedent to the Protestant Reformation.

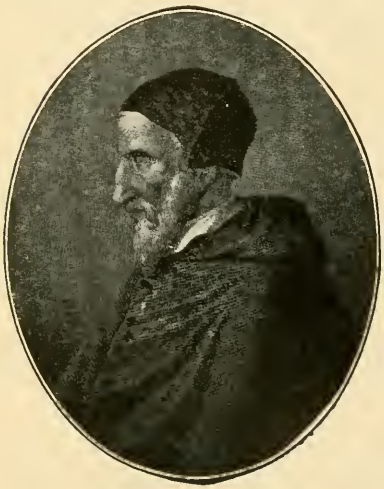
It will help towards a clearer idea of the nature of this reform if we consider separately the various elements that composed it. There were the popes whose lives were now an example to Christendom, and there were the religious orders, many of which were now modernized in their spirit and in their work, there were the saints whose sanctity now assumes a type in conformity with modern times, and finally there was the important council of Trent that moulded into a definite and permanent shape the new materials of the outward body and seeming of the Church.

442. **The Popes.**— Perhaps the first pope who represented the Reformation inside the Church was Paul IV (1555). In the beginning of his reign, he allowed his attention to be taken up with political interests, but he afterward devoted himself entirely to the interests of the Church. His relations were removed from the Roman Curia and both by example and by monition he made the first steps in the direction of reform.

443. **Pius V** (1566) was in many respects the most worthy and typical representative of the reforming movement. He drew a strong line of demarcation between the Catholic Church and other denominations, and at the same time he increased within this narrower area the spiritual life of the Church. He renewed a crusade against the Turks. Under his auspices a league of the Spaniards and of the Venetians was formed against the Turks and in 1571 he was rewarded by the victory of Lepanto. His bull by which he excommunicated heretics and all who should in any way favor the Saracens and the aid that he gave to the Catholic party in France and in the Netherlands were also a part of the same policy.

Indeed, by the end of his reign, Pius V had succeeded in clearly delineating the frontiers of the Church, perhaps somewhat to the exasperation of those who were on the outer side of the frontier.

Of equal importance were his efforts in the direction of reform. The main consideration that lead to his election had been the sanctity of his private life. His charity and humility — not his political ability — lifted him to the papal throne. As pope, his public virtues were not less eminent. His zeal in putting down simony, his care for the education and spiritual character of aspirants to the priesthood made their beneficent results felt everywhere. It is also to Pope Pius V that we are mainly indebted for the Roman Breviary in its present form. Various other breviaries had been in use before his time but he abrogated them and substituted instead the breviary in its present form.



Gregory XIII.

444. **Gregory XIII,** who succeeded Pius V in 1572 was also zealous for the good of the Church, but his zeal had even a more combative character than that of his predecessor. He was frequently engaged in disputes with Venice and other governments. The things for which he will be best remembered are the material improvements that characterized his pontificate. For example, there were the six colleges that he built at Rome, and the establishing and the endowment of colleges in other towns of Italy. Then again, the name of

Pope Gregory XIII will always be associated with the Gregorian Calendar. Hitherto, the Julian Calendar, the one that was adjusted by Julius Cæsar, had been in use. But this in course of time by the accumulation of small errors had become unserviceable. Gregory XIII introduced the new and present system of calculation and it was speedily adopted all over Christendom.

445. **Sixtus V** (1585) was the last of the popes of this particular period. He was a man of extraordinary capacity and indefatigable energy. The magnificent halls in the Vatican library, the completion of the cupola of St. Peter's, the superb aqueduct called the "Aqua Felici" and the well-known obelisk in front of St. Peter's were all his work. His interest in sacred learning was shown by his new edition of the Vulgate Bible. Nor was he forgetful of administrative concerns. He limited the number of cardinals to seventy and established fifteen congregations for the more efficient performance of the business of the Church.

446. **The New Religious Orders.**— The influence exercised by the popes was rendered most efficacious by the founding of new religious orders. Some of these still had for their object the cultivation of the contemplative life, while others adapted themselves for work in their modern environment. One great feature of these modern orders was the absence of a strong line of demarcation between the religious man and the man of the world, such as we see in the older orders. In dress, in occupation, and in wideness of interests they tried to assimilate themselves more to the outer world.

447. **The Jesuits.**— The most important of these orders was undoubtedly that of the Jesuits, founded in 1537 by St. Ignatius Loyola. St. Ignatius was at first an officer in the

Spanish army. Receiving a wound on the field of battle, he was laid up for some weeks in the hospital. During that time he read the lives of the saints. The eternal truths made such an impression upon his mind that he determined to forsake the world and devote himself entirely to the promotion of the glory of God.

The general principles that seemed to have guided him in the construction of his order were the defense of the Holy See, the destruction of religious error, and the mental and religious welfare of humanity.

448. **Jesuit Training.**— The means adopted were the formation of a large body of men united together under one supreme head by (a) the tie of strictest military obedience; (b) the taking of a fourth vow, promising to go as missionaries to any part of the world to which the pope might send them; (c) a long course of mental and spiritual training. This consisted of two years novitiate spent not in study but in the practice of humility and of the other virtues. At the end of the two years they were to undergo a course of five years' study, after which the subjects were to teach in the schools of the order for five or six years. At the end of this time those who were to become priests had to go through a course of four years' theology. Even their years of study were accompanied by frequent daily exercises of piety, such as meditation and examination of the conscience.

It was evident that a large body of men carefully selected so thoroughly trained in every way and so tied down by obedience to their immediate superior and to the pope must have been a most formidable fighting contingent in the ranks of the Church. In a few years' time branches of the order were to be found in every part of Europe and the whole of this formidable organization was completely at the disposal of the Pope.

449. **Jesuit Influence.**— The chief spheres of their activity in Europe were the confessional and the professor's chair. Through these avenues they reached every class of society, the highest as well as the lowest. Hitherto the confessors of kings had been chiefly the mendicant friars. But now they were the Jesuits, typical of whom was the celebrated Père le Chaise, confessor to Louis XIV. Their colleges and schools became renowned throughout Europe for learning and strictness of discipline.

450. **Jesuit Missionaries.**— The missionary labors of the Jesuits were also of importance. St. Francis Xavier, a distinguished member of the order, labored in the East Indies and southern India. In Japan, the Jesuit fathers prepared the way for those to come after. In China according to the testimony of one who was for years British consul at Pekin, they met with conspicuous success. Finally in Paraguay, out of the converted Indians they built up a well organized state, a state where all dwelt in peace and harmony, where none paid taxes and all lived upon the product of the common labor.

Besides the Jesuits, other modern orders were founded about this time, orders, which being still in existence deserve some mention. Some of the more important of these are described in the following paragraphs.

451. **The Theatines.**— This order was founded by Paul IV. Its main purpose was to correct the abuses of the clergy by setting an example of every priestly virtue. One work of charity in particular supposed to be peculiarly their province, was the preparing for death of those doomed to capital punishment. Numerous houses of the order flourished in different countries, but now the order is to be found only in Italy.

452. **The Oratorians.**— This was a congregation founded by St. Philip Neri (1515–1595). It was not an order in the strict sense of the word, since no religious vows were taken. Its primary object was to meet the wants of those who while shrinking from the burdens of the religious life still wished to enjoy some of the assistance that it afforded. Its practical daily work was chiefly the instruction of the people. But the members of the order themselves soon became known for their deep and scholarly learning.

453. **The Barnabites.**—The full title of this congregation is "Regular clerks of the Congregation of St. Paul." They are however, popularly styled Barnabites from the church of St. Barnabas in Milan where the first members of the congregation used to assemble and pray in common. At the present day the Barnabites are strong in the north of Italy and maintain their reputation for learning and scientific research.

It will be seen from the account of the work done by the orders and congregations that they were very practical and modern in their spirit and in their work. Their members mixed freely with the world. And while, on the one hand, the note of extreme asceticism seems to be wanting, there is a greater cultivation of the more common and human virtues of daily life. The medieval world had a type of sanctity of its own and so has the modern.

454. **Saints of the Sixteenth Century.**— We find this illustrated also in the saints that flourished about the sixteenth century. St. Charles Borromeo (1564), whose picture at the present day is to be found in every part of northern Italy, so undying is the memory of his zeal, charity, and utter devotion to his people. St. Francis de Sales (1567), celebrated for his charity and kindness, St. Philip Neri, called from his zeal the Apostle of Rome, who when complaints were made to

him of certain noisy boys replied that they might break faggots on his back so long as they did not commit sin. In these as in so many other saints there is something essentially modern. While not loing sight in any way of the practice of the highest supernatural virtue, they seem placed more in touch with our own every day life.

455. **The Council of Trent** (1545-1563).— One very important factor in the Catholic Reformation was the holding of the Council of Trent. Individual popes with their supreme jurisdiction might accomplish much in the way of reform, but it was desirable that the bishops of all the dioceses far and near should meet together and all agree on some common plan of operation.

For a long while, the German emperors had been pressing upon the popes the need of holding a general council. But there were difficulties in the way. To hold the council on German soil would be giving rise to the same disorders that had attended certain other councils like those of Constance and Basel. Indeed, owing to the influence of Protestantism there would be still greater danger of disaffection toward the sovereign jurisdiction of the pope. Yet to hold the council on Italian ground might make the Germans fearful of local influences. This difficulty, however, was finally surmounted by the council being held at Trent which was on neutral ground. The council with various intermissions lasted about eighteen years. It was presided over in succession by Paul III, Julius III, and Pius IV.

The importance of the council is seen from the fact that it dealt with a wider range of subjects than any other council, that it set forth in definite form the doctrines that had so far been defined or universally held by the Church, and that it reduced to a permanent system the reforming movement inside the Church.

The proceedings of the Council may be classed under two general heads. First, those that concerned the doctrines; secondly, those that concerned the discipline of the Church.

456. **The Doctrinal Decrees of the Council.**— It first of all very carefully defined the sources of authority in matters of faith. Luther and his followers had asserted that the Scriptures alone are the depository of sacred revealed truth. The council, against this, declared that the living tradition of the Church is also a depository of revealed religion. After this, the council went on to define the doctrines of the seven sacraments, especially of the Holy Eucharist. Also the doctrines concerning Purgatory, Indulgences, Veneration of Saints and Images were clearly laid down.

What seemed to have caused the greatest discussion was the question of the supremacy of the pope and the question whether the bishops ruled by divine right or only by the authority of the Holy See. After many heated arguments on both sides, the council admitted that the power of the episcopal order is conferred at the very moment of consecration, but that jurisdiction over any particular diocese can be exercised only by papal authority. This view is set forth in a condensed form in the heading of the pastoral letter issued by Catholic bishops: "By the Grace of God and of the Apostolic See."

457. **The Decrees of the Council Regarding the Discipline of the Church.**— An earnest endeavor was made to do away with the evils that had been partly the cause of the Protestant secession — such abuses, for example, as the corrupt practice of granting indulgences, the non-residence of bishops and of other pastors, the holding of benefices by laymen, and the indiscriminate granting of dispensations. The disciplinary reform had also a positive aspect. Salutary decrees were passed for the mental and spiritual betterment of the general

mass of the clergy. None but the fit were to be ordained, seminaries for the training of priests were to be erected in all the dioceses, and periodical provincial councils and espicopal synods were to be held. Also, minute regulations were laid down in order to secure that the cleric by his general deportment and by his every act might edify the faithful.

The termination of the Council of Trent saw also the completion of the work of the counter-reformation. The Church had successfully passed through the dangerous region separating medieval from modern times. Her identity and continuity of existence were still preserved and she rose from the bitterness of preceding years with renewed virtue and spiritual might.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

True causes of the reform inside the Catholic Church — Causes of the slowness of this reform — The various elements of this reform — The Popes — Pius IV — Pius V — His spiritual zeal and activity — The example of his virtues — Gregory XIII and the material improvements effected by him — Sixtus V — His activity in temporal and spiritual things — New religious orders — Difference between these and the older orders — Foundation of the Jesuit Order — Its principles and constitution — Efficiency of the order — Influence in the chair and in the confessional — St. Francis Xavier and Jesuit missionary work — The Theatines — The Oratorians — The Barnabites — Modern saints and their peculiar spirit — The Council of Trent — Reason for its delay — Importance of the Council — Its doctrinal decrees — Its disciplinary decrees.

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CHAPTER XXII

THE REVOLT OF THE NETHERLANDS

458. **Philip II.**— Of all the lay champions of the Reformation inside the Catholic Church, the foremost was perhaps Philip of Spain.

The weariness of strife had induced Charles V to retire from all cares of government. To his son Philip he resigned Spain, the Netherlands and the Italian provinces, and for his brother Ferdinand he succeeded in procuring the election to the empire and thus the leadership of Germany.

Philip II was now one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe. While his cousin Ferdinand of Germany enjoyed the shadowy dignity of the Holy Roman Empire, he controlled a real empire whose extent comprised not only the countries already mentioned but also the New World with all its treasures of bullion and commerce. Spain was now the preponderating power of Europe and the character of its ruler became therefore a matter of supreme importance.

The personal appearance of Philip II was not calculated to inspire awe. His dwarfish stature, his bent legs, his nervous and embarrassed manner quite explain his reluctance to appear much in public. Also, unlike Charles V, his accomplishments were few. Spanish was the only language that he spoke with ease, and his interests were extremely narrow. There was, however, one thing that he could do well and that was the ordinary routine business of daily government. His mind was rather like that of a foreman in a business store. He delighted in details, and he himself insisted on performing all the business that in the United States is performed by the departments of war, education, agriculture, commerce, and

finance. With regard to wide problems of statecraft he was capable of pursuing safely the policy of centralization begun by his predecessors, but when he initiated any line of policy of his own, he was signally unsuccessful.

459. **Centralizing Policy of Philip.**— He continued the work of his predecessor in establishing the supremacy of the royal authority in his own Spanish dominions. Already the representative government and the power of the people had been reduced by policy of Charles V to a mere formality. In Aragon, Philip now began a similar policy and with success. The Cortes retained only a shadow of their former power and the courts of law were entirely at the disposal and mercy of the king.

Philip II. Born at Valladolid 1527; died at the Escorial 1598.

Besides this success, Philip also succeeded in temporarily annexing Portugal to his possessions and in strengthening the royal authority in his Italian provinces.

460. **Philip's Intervention in the Netherlands.**— But there was just one place in his dominions where his policy suffered a complete shipwreck, and that was the Netherlands. His attempt to crush the provinical liberties of the Netherlands not only met with determined and unexpected opposition but had the effect of making the Netherlands for about thirty years

the principal stage of European politics on which he played a losing part. It was there that the physical contestant forces of the Protestants and Catholics met in combat and it was there that was mainly fought the question of Spanish preponderance in Europe.

461. **The Netherlands.**— In order to understand, however, the meaning of the struggle and its influence on the future map of Europe it is important to form some idea of what then was meant by the Netherlands.

During the middle ages the Netherlands included what is now Belgium and Holland. In the 16th century the whole of this territory passed into the hands of the Dukes of Burgundy. Later on, by the marriage of Maximilian with Mary of Burgundy it passed into the hands of the House of Austria. Charles then made another change by transferring the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands to the immediate jurisdiction of Spain.

One very important feature in the Netherlands was the difference between the northern and the southern provinces. This difference was one of religion and of race. The inhabitants of the northern Provinces were mainly Protestants and of German descent; the inhabitants of the southern Provinces were chiefly Catholics, and of French descent. This difference between the North and the South gradually shaped the whole course of the war between Philip and the Netherlands and ended by the northern Provinces becoming what is now Holland, and the southern Provinces becoming what is now Belgium.

462. **The Causes of the War** between the Netherlands and Spain was the policy of Philip who tried to crush the local liberties of the different provinces in the Netherlands and to substitute instead his own royal authority. He tried to effect

this in two ways. First, by establishing a central government entirely under his control. The native nobles, much to their chagrin, were excluded from it. Margaret of Parma, his half-sister, who had not much independence of character, was made governor in 1559. With her were associated a triumvirate of the following ministers: Cardinal Granvella, Barleymont, a noble, and Viglius a lawyer. Cardinal Granvella was an accomplished man, acquainted with seven languages, a distinguished orator, ready-witted and a most adroit courtier. Barleymont was by Catholics esteemed loyal and honorable but by Protestants accounted as greedy and avaricious. Viglius the lawyer does not seem to have had much influence in the more important transactions of business.

The second means by which Philip tried to establish his authority was by procuring a bull from Pope Paul IV doing away with the four ancient episcopal sees and creating in their place fourteen new bishoprics and three archbishoprics. These new sees were filled with pro-Spanish bishops who could thus facilitate Philip's idea of making the Netherlands completely Spanish.

463. **Opposition to Philip's Plans.**— Philip's schemes however, roused a tempest of opposition. At the head of the resisting elements were the nobles whom Philip's government had supplanted. Three names stand out conspicuously in the list of these patriots — William of Orange, Count Egmont, and Admiral Horn. William of Orange was descended from the Counts of Nassau on the Rhine. He was at first brought up in the doctrines of Protestantism, but on entering the service of Charles V, he became a Catholic. On the death of Charles V, he became a Calvinist. He was a man of ability, and his political skill, his great caution and military sagacity made him the first leader of the opposition. Count Egmont was wealthy and noble, but the splendor of his military qual-

ities was set off by his vacillating incompetence as a statesman. Admiral Horn was High Admiral of the United Provinces.

The opposition at first contented itself with constitutional protests. It secured the removal of Cardinal Granvella and tried to show Philip the dangers of the situation he was creating.

William the Silent, Prince of Orange. Born 1535; died 1584.

464. The Compromise.— Philip, however, still persisted in his policy, and a league called "The Compromise" was formed, the non-sectarian attitude of the movement being shown by the fact that it was joined also by the Catholics. Unfortunately this purely political aspect of affairs was quickly altered by the violence of the Calvinists. Filled with rage and blind fury they demolished churches and convents and even partly defaced the magnificent Cathedral at Antwerp. Thus even in this early stage of the struggle the opposition was weakened by intestine strife.

465. The Duke of Alva.— At this juncture, the Duke of Alva was sent by Philip (1567) to crush the insurrection. Alva was already a distinguished general, noted for his strict discipline and strategic skill.

The policy of Alva in regard to the Netherlanders may be summed up in this one word "Force." He instituted a judi-

cial council of twelve judges called "The Council of Blood" which indulged in wholesale executions. He imprisoned and executed Egmont and Horn. William of Orange also would have shared the same fate but he prudently fled. Such severity was quickly followed by its own punishment. Public opinion of the Protestant Powers began to be aroused and their soldiers were soon to appear on the battle fields of the Netherlands.

466. **The Commercial Policy of Alva** was followed by still more disastrous consequences. For the free right of self-taxation which the Netherlanders had previously enjoyed, he imposed a tax of one per cent. on all property, of five per cent. on the transfer of all real property, of ten per cent. on the transfer of all movable property. Commerce was thus bound hand and foot. A house or any article of merchandise on being sold a certain number of times would soon be mulcted to the extent of its full value.

467. **The Failure of Alva's Policy** soon became apparent. William of Orange aided by his brother Louis, placed himself at the head of French and German Protestant mercenaries and speedily began to accomplish the decline of Spanish power. It is true that the mercenaries were ill-trained and ill-equipped in comparison with the Spanish soldiers, but William compensated for this lack by his consummate abilities as a statesman. Moreover, he had on his side the Dutch merchants so irritated by Alva's exactions.

468. **Requesens.**— In 1573 Alva was recalled from the Netherlands and his place was taken by Don Luis de Requesens an able soldier and a man of moderate courses. The chief incident of his administration was the mutinous conduct of the Spanish troops who maddened with fury by their long

arrears of pay broke loose from all restraint and with every circumstance of cruelty sacked and pillaged the city of Antwerp. This conduct had the effect of temporarily submerging the religious differences of the Netherlanders. Both Catholics and Protestants now united together against the oppressor and formed a league called "The Pacification of Ghent."

469. **Don John of Austria.**— In 1577, the place of Don Requesens was taken by Philip's half-brother Don John of Austria. He had already displayed the skill of an able general at the battle of Lepanto against the Turks, but was lacking in statesmanship. He was also disposed to conciliatory measures, and partly won over the southern Provinces to Spanish influences.

470. **Alexander Farnese.**— In 1578 his place was taken by Alexander Farnese, nephew of Don John and Duke of Parma and Piacenza in Italy. He successfully pursued the same policy as his predecessor but in a more conscious and more thorough way. He saw that it was now useless to try to retain the northern Provinces, but that there was every chance of gaining the southern Provinces by appealing to their religion. William of Orange had already drawn similar conclusions regarding the northern Provinces.

471. **Treaty of the Union.**— There was, therefore, nothing more left to fight about. In 1579, the Treaty of Union was signed at Utrecht. This treaty recognized the union of the seven northern Provinces with power of dictating war and peace and levying their own taxes. At first Philip's overlordship was recognized, but in 1581 even this was formally done away with. The United Provinces of the north then became a confederate Republic and had a constitution some-

what resembling that of the United States. Its Council of State containing the federal element, corresponded to our Senate, while its States' General was like our House of Representatives in upholding the local elements of the constitution. Even the central figurehead was not wanting and the House of Nassau maintained a loose kind of military presidency. But the constitution was always in a very indetermined condition and disputes were often rising between the federal and separatist elements.

While the northern Provinces thus worked out their own destiny, the southern Provinces remained Spanish and were known by the name of Spanish Netherlands. From Spain they passed successively into the hands of Austria, France, and Holland, until by a continental treaty it was constituted by the powers of Europe the present independent kingdom of Belgium.

472. **Elizabeth's Attitude Towards the Netherlands.**— During the revolt of the Netherlands, the Reformation under Elizabeth was slowly making its way in England. The severities of Alva quickly roused the ire of the English Protestants and a loud outcry was roused for an active war upon Spain. Elizabeth, however, held back. Her desire was to keep neutral if possible, and thus hold in her hands the balance of power. But the feeling of the nation was strong and she was forced to enter the struggle. An army of eight thousand men was sent to help the Protestants in the Netherlands, doles of money were sent to the Prince of Orange, while English privateers harassed the Spanish shipping. The immediate effects of the hostility were not apparent but there rose a strong feeling of resentment in Spain, which began to regard England as its deadliest foe.

473. **Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.**— In 1586 the execution of Mary Queen of Scots left Philip the nearest

Catholic heir to the English throne, and this combined with unfriendliness in the past persuaded him that a blow must now be struck at England. The defeat of England meant in his eyes the triumph of Catholicism and indirectly the conquest of the Netherlands and security of Spanish trade. He prepared therefore a great fleet with which to invade England. It was the most critical venture of his whole reign. On the success of this practically depended the supremacy or the downfall of Spain.

474. **The Spanish Armada** set sail in 1588. In numbers and in tonnage taken together it was nearly double the strength of the English fleet. But it was badly handled, and English gallantry combined with unusual storms effected its complete destruction. England had thus become the instrument of breaking the power of Spain. From now England assumes the task which has ever since been hers — the task of maintaining the balance of power in Europe and of checking any nation that threatened by its preponderance to destroy that balance.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Philip of Spain — Extent of his power — His character and accomplishments — His policy of centralization — Meaning of Netherlands — Division between the Northern and Southern Netherlands — Philip tries to crush the local liberties of the Netherlands — The Triumvirate — Opposition of Philip's schemes — The Compromise — Policy of the Duke of Alva — The Council of Blood — Failure of Alva's policy — Don Requesnes — Don John of Austria — Alexander Farnese — Treaty of Union — England's intervention in the war in the Netherlands — Spain declares war on England — Invasion of the Spanish Armada.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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of the Netherlands; STIRLING, *Don John of Austria;* CREIGHTON, *Queen Elizabeth;* PAYNE, *Voyages of Elizabethan seamen;* FROUDE, *Spanish story of the Armada;* BEAZLEY, *Queen Elizabeth;* HINDS, *England of Elizabeth;* CORBETT, *Drake and the Tudor Navy;* GACHARD, *Correspondence of Philip II;* STEVENSON, *Calendar of State Papers of Elizabeth's reign;* CABRERA DE CORDOBA, *Historia de Filip II;* WEISS, *Papiers de Cardinal de Granvelle;* LETTENHOVE, *Relations politiques du Pays Bas;* JUSTE, *de la Révolution des Pays Bas sous Philip II.*

CHAPTER XXIII

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR

475. Causes of the Thirty Years' War.— Though peace had indeed been made between Spain and the Netherlands, war still continued between the two creeds. But the scene of warfare was now to be in Germany. Here again was to be fought out the great quarrel between Protestants and Catholics and for the next thirty years Germany became the storm center of all the disturbing forces of Europe.

The causes of the Thirty Years' War are mainly to be found in the defective nature of the religious treaty of Augsburg. No provision therein had been made for future progress. The government in each state was empowered to dictate what should be the religion of that state. But no deed on parchment can stay the march of facts. Princes Catholic or Protestant might lay down regulations but populations would steadily grow Protestant or Catholic in spite of the regulations.

476. Strife for Dioceses.— Moreover, there was one point hotly disputed at the time of the treaty, which had never been even verbally settled. Catholics had insisted that if any Catholic prelate embraced the reformed faith he should resign the temporalities attached to his office. The Protestants, however, protested against this and their protest together with the Catholic claim was insisted on in the treaty. To our modern minds, the claim of the Catholic party seems reasonable enough but in those times the idea seems to have prevailed that the prince might make the faith of those who were his subjects. Naturally, this war of ideas became very acute

when bishops of important dioceses like Cologne left the Catholic faith.

Even if the Treaty of Augsburg had been clear and definite on all the issues it could only have put an end to physical hostilities. As soon as hostilities were over, the conflict was waged in the field of diplomacy and of proselytism. There was a keen competition between the two creeds especially for the bishoprics of Westphalia and Cologne, which were already wavering. Finally the struggle between the two parties over the duchies of Cleves and Julich, nearly precipitated hostilities.

The Lutheran claimant, Sigismund of Brandenburg, appealed to the Protestant party, and William, Duke of Neuberg, to the Catholic party. Even Spain and Holland were nearly being involved. However, the war cloud blew over and the peace of Xanten was signed by which Neuberg obtained Julich, while Brandenburg secured possession of Cleves.

477. **The Gregorian Calendar.**— Another element that tended to intensify animosity between the two parties was the introduction of the Gregorian Calendar. The Catholics were naturally the first to welcome its appearance but the Protestants were reluctant to adopt it. Hence the holidays and feast days as they came round only added more material for strife and hatred.

What more than anything else lead up to the Thirty Years' War was the attempt on the part of the Catholics to hold a religious procession in the streets of Donnauworth, a Protestant city. A tumult was raised and blood flowed. The town close to the dominion of Maximilian of Bavaria, was not under his jurisdiction, but the Catholics appealed to him for support. Maximilian both from zeal and interest was glad to interfere. His troops marched into the city which was accordingly annexed to his own duchy of Bavaria. Both the

Catholics and Protestants thereupon organized for war. The Protestants were induced by Christian of Anhalt to form a league and the Catholics on their side also formed a league under Maximilian of Bavaria.

478. Disputed Succession to the Empire.— Shortly after this, a disputed succession to the empire widened the strife and gave to it a national character of the most serious importance. The Emperor Mathias died in 1619. The electors, of whom the majority were Catholics, elected in his place Ferdinand II, a zealous Catholic brought up in a Jesuit college. But Bohemia being a stronghold of Protestantism bitterly protested, and chose as its ruler, Frederick, the Elector Palatine, an ardent Protestant and head of the Protestant union.

War now became inevitable, and during the next thirty years most of the European nations one after the other, were dragged into the vortex of strife.

In order to facilitate the memory as well as to render more clear the relative importance of the different phases of the war, we will divide it into periods labelled by the names of the different nations that took part in the struggle.

THE BOHEMIAN PERIOD (1618–1623).

479. Battle of the White Hill.— Frederick the Elector Palatine himself appeared in Bohemia in order to enforce his claims. Everybody was charmed by the gracefulness of his appearance, and his fair and slender form. But the Jesuits rightly prophesied that his career would be short, and christened him the "winter king." A decisive battle took place on the White Hill near Prague (1670). Shouting out their battle cry of "Holy Mary" the Catholic soldiers rushed impetuously forward and completed routed their antagonists. Not only were Frederick's dreams of aggrandizement rudely dispelled but he was even driven out of his own domains. The

Spainards who were Catholics and ruled by a Hapsburger now eagerly took part in the struggle. They invaded the Palatinate and the electoral vote was taken away from Frederick and was given to Maximilian of Bavaria.

480. **Results of the Bohemian Campaign.**— The important net results of the Bohemian campaign were the firm establishment of the rule of Ferdinand in Bohemia, the Catholic conquest of the Palatine and especially the addition of the Protestant electorial vote of the Palatine and the creation of a new electorate for the benefit of Catholic Bavaria.

The cause of Ferdinand, the champion of Catholicism, had triumphed. But this very triumph brought its own dangers. France began to get alarmed at the rising power of the Spanish-Austrian House, and in the minds of the Protestant princes of Europe, the motives of religious zeal began to excite into action any personal motives that they might have had for interference.

481. **Foreign Intervention.**— The Protestant power most deeply interested in the fate of the Elector Palatine was England, for James I then king was father-in-law to the Elector. But James, who had the ambition without the ability of Elizabeth, wished to stand aloof and hold the balance of power between European politics. All that he tried to do was to mediate with the King of Spain in behalf of the unfortunate Frederick.

The next Protestant power whose immediate interests were most at stake was Denmark. The bishoprics of Bremen and Verden in north Germany were in the possession of the son of the King of Denmark. Any further Catholic success might imperil the safety of these bishoprics. Accordingly, Christian IV of Denmark was persuaded to intervene and with this intervention begins the next period of the war.

THE DENMARKIAN PERIOD (1625–1629).

482. Wallenstein Appears.— King Christian himself headed the Danish forces and invaded Germany. In our times, this new element in the struggle would not seem of much importance but in those days Denmark was a powerful kingdom and included within its territory the present kingdom of Norway.

Against Christian of Denmark were drawn up the Catholic armies under two distinguished generals, Tilly and Wallenstein. The presence of Wallenstein especially was of supreme importance. Already he had great influence as being the owner of large territorial possessions in the northeast of Bohemia, while a huge beer monopoly in Bohemia brought him a magnificent yearly income. But it was his qualities as a general that were destined to make him so conspicuous in the war. His iron discipline, his power of rapidly forming an army out of raw recruits, and his swift irresistible movements made him a most formidable antagonist.

483. Defeat of the Danes.— The Danish army soon suffered reverse after reverse. At Lutter, Tilly completely routed Christian IV while at Cosel, Wallenstein defeated the other Danish army and drove it from Silesia.

Well might the emperor rejoice even more than at the results of the first campaign, for now it was *his* army and not that of the Catholic League that had won the day, and it was his general that had controlled all the operations. Hence Wallenstein was honored and flattered in every way. He was declared general of all the forces and admiral of the Baltic and of the North Sea. He was given the duchy of Mecklenburg and became almost sovereign over all the land bordering the Baltic Sea. All that was lacking to complete the victory was the town of Stralsund, but in spite of Wallen-

stein's efforts he failed to take it through the want of a fleet. This encouraged the Danes to make another invasion. But Wallenstein again proved himself invincible on land. In 1629 Christian was glad to conclude the treaty of Lübeck by which he was obliged to surrender his son's two bishoprics.

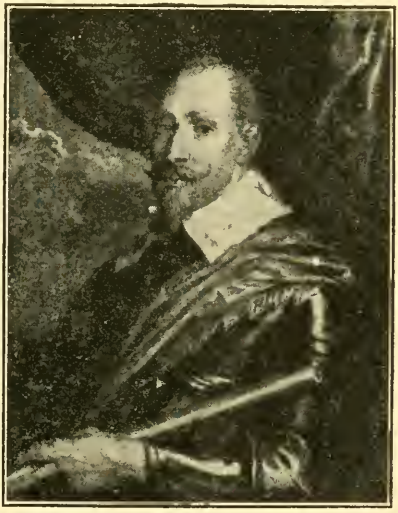
484. **Jealousy of Wallenstein.**— Wallenstein's success now gave a new complexion to the war. The Catholic League became jealous of the personal success of the emperor and were equally jealous of his all powerful general. They at once strove to minimize the activity of the emperor and to use the victories for the general good of the Church. These two things they sought to accomplish by insisting on Wallenstein's dismissal, and by procuring from the emperor the Edict of Restitution. This Edict provided that all ecclesiastical property secularized since the year 1552 should be restored.

485. **Sweden Intervenes.**— This triumphant progress of Catholicism in Germany now gave Sweden an opportunity of interfering. Sweden was ruled at that time by Gustavus Vasa, who had ascended the throne when only seventeen years of age. He at once showed signs of precocious military ability and emerged successfully from wars against Russia and Poland. He even took possession of Livonia on the south shore of the Baltic — an acquisition which must have already awakened his ambitions in the direction of Germany.

The fact that the emperor had helped his enemies in Poland and that the Protestants appealed to him for help afforded him a sufficient pretext for a more active aggressive policy. He accordingly posed as the champion of Protestantism and entered Germany at the head of an army. His appearance thus inaugurated the third period of the war.

THE SWEDISH PERIOD (1630–1635).

486. Gustavus in Germany.— It was precisely at the moment of Wallenstein's dismissal that Gustavus landed in Germany. The army of Gustavus was now one of the model armies of Europe. Instead of the old-fashioned scattered cohorts, they were well formed regiments taught to move with even movement and precision, while the more efficient musket was substituted for the ancient and unwieldly spear and pike.



Gustavus Adolphus, from a portrait by Van Dyck. Born 1594; killed at Lützen 1632.

So masterly were the early operations of Gustavus that Napoleon once remarked that they showed him to be one of the greatest generals of his age. At first, he delayed his advance till the Protestant princes of Brandenburg and Saxony had definitely joined his standard, for he was fearful of being cut off from communication with his base of supplies and from the possibility of a retreat. But this obstacle was soon surmounted and Gustavus was able to advance. At Breitenfeld near Leipsic his army met the imperial forces under Tilly and severely defeated them.

There was no Wallenstein now to retrieve the disaster and all Germany seemed to lay at the feet of Gustavus. He made a victorious march through the ecclesiastical principalities of southwestern Germany, where town after town fell into his

hands. Thence he turned eastwards and invaded Bavaria, the very stronghold of Catholicism.

487. **The Recall of Wallenstein.**—There was only one man equal to the situation, and that man was Wallenstein. But would he now consent to take command after his recent humiliation? The emperor through sheer necessity made overtures to him. But Wallenstein was now master of the position and could make his own terms. As was not unnatural he consulted his own interests and policy. His terms were that he should have sole and unlimited control of the army, that he should be sovereign over any of the provinces that he might conquer, and that the emperor should give him one of the imperial hereditary states.

488. **Death of Gustavus at Lützen.**— The emperor consented; as soon as Wallenstein was on the field the tide of Swedish invasion was brought to a standstill. Wallenstein by throwing up remarkably strong lines of defense prevented Gustavus from taking the city of Nuremberg. Both generals then declined an immediate engagement and marched northwards into Saxony. Wallenstein hoped to win over the Elector of Saxony, but Gustavus tried to prevent this. They met at Lützen (1632) where the imperial forces were indeed beaten, but the defeat was acknowledged to be a victory when it became known that Gustavus had fallen on the field of battle.

489. **The Murder of Wallenstein.**— Wallenstein had now reached the zenith of his power. Bitter experience, however, might have taught him that this was also the hour of danger. Again the old jealousies against him were aroused. Even the emperor began to shrink from his huge debt of obligations to Wallenstein and to regard him as a dangerous instrument

no longer of use. The career of Wallenstein began to decline. Amidst dark clouds of unpopularity he retired to the walls of his faithful fortress of Egen but even there he was pursued by the daggers of assassins and he perished in 1634.

In the same year, the emperor took charge of the splendid army that had been left by Wallenstein and at the battle of Nordlingen he so effectually crushed the Protestants that the whole of South Germany now lay at the disposal of the imperialists (1674).

Wallenstein.

490. A New Leader.— The question of finding a new ally for the Protestants was at once raised. James I of England had shown himself unwilling to do more than give fair words, and both Denmark and Sweden had failed of victory. But the changed aspect of the war which had become not so much a struggle between Catholics and Protestants as between the emperor and those who resented his ever increasing power, suggested a new ally. The battle of Nordlingen became the signal for French intervention and with this we enter upon the last period of the war.

THE FRENCH PERIOD (1634–1648)

Even during the earlier stages of the war, France had been an interested spectator. Both on the east and southwest her frontiers were menaced by the possessions of the powerful

house of Hapsburg. The Spaniards had succeeded in obtaining possession of the pass of the Valtelline between Italy and the Austrian Tyrol — an important prize since it secured communication between the Hapsburg possessions in Italy and Germany.

491. **Cardinal Richelieu** was then Prime Minister in France and he at once began operations. He assisted the Protestant insurgents in the Valtelline against the Spaniards, he formed an alliance with Holland for the purpose of attacking Spain in her Netherland possessions, and on the southwest he succeeded in taking Roussillon, a province of Spain dangerously close to the French frontier. More important still was the French occupation of the chief fortresses of Alsace. At the same time that the French were securing their interests, the Swedes were warring in order to retain their hold on northern Germany.

492. **Treaty of Westphalia.**— It became pretty clear that the original purposes of the war had been lost sight of altogether and that it had degenerated into an indecent struggle for the spoils of Hapsburgan territory. At last, all parties became weary of the contest. Negotiations were set on foot and after a great many preliminary formalities, there was signed in 1648 the famous Treaty of Westphalia.

This treaty settled two very important questions, first the religious, secondly the territorial question.

The religious question was settled mainly on the basis laid down by the Treaty of Augsburg of 1555. Each prince was to dictate the religion of the state over which he ruled. But this right was limited by the liberty allowed to non-conformers of emigrating within five years' time. In all imperial courts and deputations members of the religious parties were to be admitted in equal numbers. The difficulty of ecclesiastical res-

ervations was also dealt with in the same manner as in the Treaty of Augsburg, only that a different date was fixed, namely 1624. That is to say, all benefices secularized before this date were to remain as they were. In only two respects were there any fresh lines of departure. First the Calvinists were recognized and second members of different creeds no longer enjoyed equal rights within their respective states.

493. **The Territorial Question** was settled by the following arrangements:

France obtained Alsace with the exception of the bishopric of Strasburg.

Sweden obtained Upper Pomerania, part of Lower Pomerania, the cities of Bremen and Verden which had formerly belonged to Denmark, and a war indemnity.

Brandenburg obtained all that part of Pomerania which did not go to Sweden. Brandenburg was really entitled to the whole and therefore received by way of compensation the bishopric of Halberstadt, Magdeburg and Minden.

The boundaries of the Holy Roman Empire underwent modifications. Switzerland and the Protestant Netherlands were now declared outside its boundaries. The reason of this will easily be understood when it is remembered that the present Holy Roman Empire now only meant Italy and Germany, and thus all political communication between Germany and the aforesaid two countries had altogether ceased.

494. **Results of the Treaty of Westphalia.**— The following were the most important results of the Treaty of Westphalia: (a) France owing to her possessions in Alsace had from now a strong German policy; (b) Sweden from her possession in North Germany had now some chance of realizing her ambition of converting the Baltic into a Swedish Lake; (c) Brandenburg by its possession of part of Pomerania and the bishop-

rics of Halberstadt, Magdeburg, and Minden found itself in possession of important nuclei which were eventually to coalesce by future conquests and form the kingdom of Prussia; (d) In Germany itself, the power of the emperor as such was reduced to a mere shadow, the princes of Germany having now become so many independent sovereigns.

495. **Foreign Policy of James I.**— England, as we have seen, interfered very little in the Thirty Years' War. James I was anxious to maintain the balance of power in Europe by an alliance between himself as the leader of the Protestants and Philip III of Spain as leader of the Catholics. Even the Spanish occupation of the possessions of his son-in-law the Elector Palatine, failed to move him from this policy. He even tried to bring about a marriage between his son Charles and the daughter of Phillip III. It was only when his son who went to Spain in order to woo in person, had been publicly mocked at by the Spanish court and openly fooled, that James began to veer round from his cherished policy.

Instead of courting an alliance with Spain, James and his minister now began to make approaches to France. As a seal upon the amity of the two nations Prince Charles was married to Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. But in spite of this marriage, England still held aloof from actual strife and took no substantial part in the great continental war.

496. **The Domestic History of James' Reign** is more important. Already under Elizabeth Parliament had begun to assert its powers. Indeed, on two or three occasions an actual collision between Elizabeth and Parliament seemed imminent and was only averted by the queen's exquisite tact.

But James was utterly unlike Elizabeth. He had lived all his life in Scotland, and had no acquaintance with the temper

of the English people. He was thoroughly conceited and without any corresponding ability, and he had even a greater ambition than his predecessor to strengthen the royal power.

497. **Contest Between James I and Parliament.**— Almost as soon as he ascended the throne, disputes took place between himself and Parliament. These disputes mainly rose from his doctrine that kings rule by divine right, a doctrine which he pushed to practical extremes. In religious matters he refused to listen to any suggestions for the reform of the Church and by his high-handed proceedings offended the strong moderate party of the Church of England. In his relations with Parliament, the king claimed though unsuccessfully the right to decide disputed elections to the House of Commons.

Ignoring the right of Parliament to grant or refuse taxes, he himself of his own royal authority levied imposts and rates and even had published a book of rates imposing heavy duties on almost every article of commerce. Owing to his desire of summoning Parliament as seldom as possible, James soon had recourse to raising money by forced loans, monopolies, and benevolences. This roused a spirit of resentment in nearly every class of society. In judicial matters, he also clashed with the spirit of the constitution. At first, his acts were tempered with some show of legality, for he took care to procure the support and favorable decision of the judges. But later on he threw aside even this outer covering of decency. When the Lord Chief Justice Coke upheld the procedure of the law against the king's personal intervention, he was roughly deposed and dismissed from office.

In 1625 the quarrelsome reign of James I came to a close and he was succeeded by his son Charles I, in whose reign the strife between the king and Parliament was brought to a violent climax.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Germany again the center of the religious war — Causes of the thirty years' war — Immediate cause of the thirty years' war — The Bohemian Period — Battle of White Hill — Triumph of Ferdinand — Denmarkian Period — Struggles between Christian IV and Tilly and Wallenstein — the Danes defeated — Wallenstein's success arouses jealousy of Catholic princes — Wallenstein's dismissal — Swedish Period — Gustavus Adolphus — Battle of Breitenfeld — Wallenstein recalled on his own conditions — Battles of Lutzen — Death of Gustavus — Assassination of Wallenstein — French Period — Motives of French intervention — Success of Cardinal Richelieu's policy — Treaty of Westphalia — Results of the Treaty of Westphalia — James I's foreign policy — His abandonment of an alliance with Spain and his approaches to the French court — Character of James I — Disputes arise between himself and parliament — James I raises money by unconstitutional means — His interference with the courts of justice.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

CAMBRIDGE, *Modern History;* FLETCHER, *Gustavus Adolphus;* GINDELY, *Thirty Years' War;* FOX-BOURNE, *Sir Philip Sidney;* GARDINER, *Thirty Years' War;* SCHILLER, *Thirty Years' War;* GARDINER, *The First Two Stuarts;* GREEN, *History of the English People;* DE THON, *History of his own times, book CXXX and VIII;* GRINDELY, *History of Thirty Years' War;* CHARVÉNAT, *Histoire de les Guerres de Trente Ans;* CARAFA, *Relatione dello Stato dell' impero a della Germania;* MEURIN, *Acta pacis Westphalianae;* GFRORA, *Gustavus Adolphus* (Leipsig); TADIA, *Briefe von Wallenstein.*

CHAPTER XXIV

FRANCE PREVIOUS TO THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV

498. **The Two Parties in France.**— The great struggle between Catholics and Protestants that had made of Germany one huge battlefield made itself felt also in France. In France also, there were two political parties, one of which identified itself with Catholicism and the other with Protestantism. The Dukes of Guise supported the Catholics, while the Princes of Bourbon upheld the Calvinists. Owing to the minority of Francis II and after him of Charles IX Catharine de Medicis, the queen mother, held the reins of power as regent. Though a Catholic, she upheld neither side but coquetted first with one side then the other.

499. **Massacre of St. Bartholomew.**— From 1559 to 1598, the history of the strife is a record of mutual violence and deeds of cruelty. One act in this lurid drama has attracted the special attention of historians and that is the celebrated massacre of St. Bartholomew (1572). The circumstances of the massacre were as follows: Attempts were being made to heal the strife between the rival parties. Admiral Coligny, one of the most famous of the Protestant leaders had been invited by Charles IX to the French court while a marriage was going to be celebrated between the Protestant king of Navarre and Margaret, the youngest sister of Charles. In order to take part in the rejoicings a number of Calvinists hastened from all parts to Paris. Unfortunately these apparent signs of reconciliation only lead to disastrous consequences. Admiral Coligny so abused his position as to prejudice Charles against Catharine, and this so frightened the

queen mother that she arranged a plot to assassinate Coligny. The plot failed and now that so many Calvinists were in Paris she was terrified at the possible consequences of her attempt upon Coligny's life. She and the Duke of Anjou represented to the king that Coligny and the Calvinists were plotting against his life; that civil war was imminent, and that the only remedy was the wholesale extermination of the Protestants. The king consented. At the sound of the midnight bell of the Church of Saint Germain l'Auxerois, the massacre of the Protestants began and lasted three whole days, in the course of which thousands of people were killed.

Whether or not Charles really believed the suggestions of the queen mother regarding a Protestant plot and an approaching civil war he certainly alleged these things as an excuse for his deed. He seems also to have taken care that the news of the excuse should reach Rome, for Pope Gregory XIII ordered a solemn Te Deum to be sung and congratulated the king on his narrow escape.

500. **Question of Succession.**— The massacre did not succeed in quieting the agitations of the Huguenots. The death of Charles IX in 1574 and the accession of Henry III, a weak and incompetent man had no influence in diminishing the struggle. When it became evident that Henry III would soon die without children, the question of succession brought the strife to a climax.

Both religious parties began to run their own candidates for the royal succession. The Protestants supported the claims of Henry of Bourbon, the Calvinist king of Navarre, and nearest heir to the throne; the Catholics on the other hand, offered the throne to the Cardinal of Bourbon, the nearest Catholic heir. A Catholic league was formed in order to uphold the claims of the Cardinal but its forces were defeated at Courtrai by Henry of Navarre. Henry III was still alive

while they were thus prematurely fighting for the possession of his throne.

501. **Henry IV.**— It was natural that neither side should have any particular claim on his sympathy, but his own safety urged him to form an alliance with Henry of Navarre. Shortly after this he was assassinated and in 1590, Henry of Navarre scceeded as Henry IV.

The religion of Henry IV would no doubt have been an insuperable obstacle in the eyes of the majority of his subjects. This difficulty, however, was soon solved. He announced his determination to embrace the Catholic religion. Many with too great facility have attributed this conversion to mere motives of policy. But the after career of Henry IV showed clearly that he had more sympathy with the Catholic than with the Protestant religion.

502. **Edict of Nantes.**— One of the most important measures of his reign was that which regarded the Protestants. He was sincerely desirous of putting an end to religious strife and he also saw clearly that the only way to accomplish this was to allow a compromise by which each party might find itself satisfied with the obtainment of the possible maximum of its claims. In 1598, was issued the famous Edict of Nantes. This Edict allowed to the Protestants full liberty of worship in nearly two hundred towns, most of them in the South, while in other parts of the kingdom, the Protestants could choose for their place of worship one town in each judicial district. Also, they were allowed to hold office in Parliament and in the different administrative offices. As a guarantee for all this, certain towns were handed over to the Protestants.

The Catholics on the other hand had the supremacy of their faith acknowledged, its festivals made obligatory on all,

and the continued enjoyment of its revenues. One striking feature of the compromising element of the treaty was that while the dissenters had to pay tithes to the Catholic Church, their own expenses were partly defrayed from the king's own purse.

503. **Prosperity in France.**— Besides the great religious peace, another important element of Henry's reign was the rapid growth in the material prosperity of France. This was mainly owing to the practical ability of the Duke of Sully, Henry's most able administrator.

It was chiefly in matters of economy that the administration of Sully was beneficial to the kingdom. The system of levying taxes was improved so that the greater part of the money raised, actually found its way into the treasury. While the revenue underwent a diminution from the abolition of sinecure offices that used to be sold to the highest bidder, it received a compensation by making seats in its Parliament or supreme court of justice, hereditary on condition of payment of an annual tax.

Regulations were made for improving the trade of the nation. Communication between different parts of the kingdom was facilitated by the construction of roads and bridges. Capital was retained in the kingdom by forbidding the exportation of money and a better distribution of capital was also arrived at by limiting the rate of interest to six per cent. New factories were established, plantations of mulberry trees were introduced, and such important public works were successfully executed as the Botanical Garden of Montpellier, the Hospital of Christian Charity for invalid soldiers, and other benevolent institutions.

Nor was the Duke of Sully indifferent to the importance of a strong maritime and colonial policy. It was in his time that Marseilles looms into view as a great mercantile port and that

the important Canadian colonies were founded at Annapolis and Quebec.

Another beneficent feature of Henry's reign was the care shown for the lower classes of the people.

The sayings attributed to Henry that "He wished that every peasant might have a fowl in his pot on Sunday," and that "He who robbed the people robbed him," are sufficiently indicative of his paternal regard for the lower classes. One practical illustration of this we find in his organization of co-operative industries in which one-thirtieth of all the earnings was to be set aside for the use of disabled workmen.

504. **France a Centralized Government.**— Perhaps the only real complaint that could be made against Henry was that he established too centralized a system of government and that he ignored the assistance of the assemblies. But this was not altogether his fault. He himself frequently had to complain of the ineptitude both of the states general and of the parliaments. What he therefore could not accomplish through others, he had to accomplish by his own efforts.

505. **Louis XIII.**— Henry IV. perished in 1610 by the dagger of an assassin, and was succeeded by Louis XIII.

The character of Louis XIII made him unfit for governing. He was weak, timid, irresolute, and fit only to be an obscure gentleman. The real power was in the hands of two powerful ministers — first, the Cardinal Richelieu and second, his successor, Cardinal Mazarin.

506. **Cardinal Richelieu** was in many respects the greatest politician of his age. He had the rare gift of seeing into problems and of distinguishing between what was substantial and what was only of transient importance. His whole policy was consistently guided by the widest views and by the most

intimate practical acquaintance with the domestic and foreign politics of France. His moral was also equal to his mental greatness. In spite of all the obstacles, including his own wretched health, with which he had to contend he showed untiring energy and indomitable purpose. Cruel he may have been, but it was only the cruelty which sweeps away obstacles from one's path. There was nothing about the man that was either mean or low.

Cardinal Richelieu. Born 1585; Prime Minister of France from 1624 until his death in 1642.

507. Policy of Richelieu.— An examination of the general tenor of Richelieu's policy shows that he had always in view two main objects. These were, first, the consolidation of the kingdom under a strong centralized power and second, the crushing of the power of the rival house of Austria whose possessions now threatened France on both sides.

The first of these two objects he tried to obtain by reducing the power of those who were obstacles in the way of the

centralizing power of the king, namely the Calvinists and the feudal nobles.

The Calvinists owing to their restlessness and independent political position were a constant menace to the unity and safety of the kingdom. Even as early as 1620 they revolted but were quieted partly by diplomacy, partly by force. Again in 1629 they became still more insolent. In the strong fortress of Rochelle, they took up their headquarters and the prospect of English assistance tended to make them all the more defiant. Richelieu now decided on using overwhelming force. The fortress was taken and demolished; and Richelieu took away their towns of security thus reducing them to the position of ordinary citizens.

508. **The Nobles** who were frequently plotting against the government he crushed by the most drastic methods. The ringleaders, no matter how powerful they were, speedily found themselves on the scaffold. Even high rank and princely blood were no protection against his anger. Thus the Marquis of Montmorency was executed, and the Duke of Orleans, the king's own brother, had to fly to the Spanish Netherlands.

Besides using destructive methods against those who barred his way, Richelieu also strove to set up efficient machinery of government.

509. **Administrative System.**— He deprived the nobility of the administrative and judicial functions that had been the prerogative of their class and entrusted these functions to a hierarchy of officials absolutely dependent on the crown. Hitherto, the nobleman's domain had been the unit of local administration and the noble himself while receiving the feudal dues from tenants did something in return by acting as administrator and magistrate. But under Richelieu the nobles began

to be shorn of these responsibilities. France soon became mapped out into new districts governed by a hierarchy of officials culminating in a central officer who lived at Paris and who was entirely subservient to the king.

510. **Relations with Austria.**— We now have to consider how Richelieu carried out the second great object of his policy, namely the humbling of the rival house of the Hapsburgs. This he accomplished by coöperating with and intensifying all the different elements that were tending to drag down the Hapsburgs. Thus he aided the Protestants in Germany against the emperor; in Italy he supported the Protestants of the Valtelline against the Spaniards, in the Spanish Netherlands he invoked the hostile interventions of Holland and finally, in Spain he upheld the provincials against Philip IV.

Besides holding in check his most dangerous foreign enemy, he strengthened the northern frontier of France by the capture of Artois, and secured the southwestern frontier by the still more important occupation of Roussillon.

511. **Effects of Richelieu's Policy.**— It must be admitted that the strong government of Richelieu was beneficial to France from almost every point of view. He not only developed her internal resources but he also made her strong among the nations of Europe.

Much also might be said of Richelieu's minor achievements, amongst them being the foundation of the celebrated French Academy, and the establishment of the first French newspaper. He himself wrote "The Memoirs of Cardinal Richelieu" and the "Testament Politique." He died in 1642. In the same year Louis XIII also died leaving the crown to the young Louis XIV, for whom his mother, Anne of Austria, acted as regent. Richelieu's place as minister was taken by Cardinal Mazarin, a man of considerable ability but of a lower type than Richelieu.

512. **Cardinal Mazarin** continued the same policy of Richelieu, but soon found that he had to encounter other antagonists besides the nobles. Those new enemies were the middle class, who now rose in revolt against the court. But eventually the good fortune as well as the dexterity of Mazarin won the day. He rallied to his side a considerable portion of the army and thus overawed the populace, while the nobles seemed to have lost the will as well as the power to do harm, in fact they seemed to regard the campaign against tyranny as a sort of amusement.

513. **The Foreign Policy of Mazarin** was also a continuation of that of Richelieu, and was attended by even more conspicuous success. In this he was greatly helped by an alliance which he succeeded in effecting with England. An English army landed in the Spanish Netherlands and took one important place after another. It was not long before Spain became anxious for peace, and after many negotiations, the active hostility between France and Spain was ended by the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659.

By this treaty, France acquired a further accession of strength on all her frontiers. In the north she acquired a number of fortresses, in Flanders, Hainnault and Luxemburg; on the east, she was confirmed in the possession of Alsace and had also certain limited rights over Lorraine, while in the southwest she was allowed to retain the province of Roussillon. Besides these actual successes, the way was prepared for further French aggrandizement by the marriage of Louis XIV with the Spanish princess, MariaTheresa. It is true that the French king at the time renounced all pretensions to the Spanish throne, but in politics expediency often outweighs the memory of obligations as the sequel of this incident will show.

Mazarin died in 1661, and at his death Louis XIV at once

grasped the reins of power, determining that he would be his own prime minister.

514. **King Charles I** ascended the English throne in 1625 and during his reign the struggle between king and parliament reached its last terrible phase. A clear idea of this momentous struggle can be best obtained by a study of the chief events that, like links in a chain, lead on from the beginning of Charles' reign to its final catastrophe.

515. **Strife with Parliament.**— Even from the very outset there were misunderstandings. Charles had allowed his partiality for Catholicism to become visible while parliament in its turn showed its distrust to such an extent that it would grant certain customs duties only for one year instead of for life as had previously been the case. Another cause of bitterness was the Duke of Buckingham, Charles' favorite, who drew upon himself the hostility of Parliament. Charles was requested to dismiss him, but the answer was a refusal. Thereupon parliament refused to grant any more subsidies. This forced Charles to have recourse to benevolences, forced loans, and other unpopular expedients of raising money.

516. **Petition of Right.**— At length absolute need of money forced Charles to summon the parliament of 1628. On this occasion, was drawn up the celebrated Petition of Right, which was a recital of previous statutes. It protested against arbitrary punishment, arbitrary taxation, and the billeting of soldiers upon the people. Charles was obstinate at first and would not yield. But his needs overpowered his obstinacy and finally he signed the petition.

Charles, however, was not in earnest and he continued to levy money by illegal means. Enormous penalties imposed for small offenses, high financial monopolies and vexatious

customs duties — all these were made use of in order to procure money in spite of parliament.

517. **The Religious Element of the Quarrel** brought about the final clash. Already during the reign of Elizabeth there had been within the Anglican Church signs of revolt against the practice and ritual established by the crown. The apparent moderation of Elizabeth's Protestantism was very displeasing to those who held to the rigid and extreme views of Calvin. The use of the surplice and the Prayer Book were denounced by them as "anti-Christian" and contrary to the Scriptures. They even went so far as to organize distinct congregations of their own, a course of action which gave to them the name of Separatists.

Elizabeth was much opposed to these sects and resorted to persecution. This, however, had no bad effect on their disposition towards the throne itself, and while in religious matters they continued dissenters, they still remained loyal subjects.

When James I came to the throne, the element of religious discontent quickly appeared. The Puritan party in the Church presented to him what was called the Millenary Petition, begging of him to reform the Church especially in the matter of certain ceremonies which they regarded as popish. James, however, ignored their petition. He then ordered a conference to be held at Hampton Court, 1604, between the divines of both parties. The result, however, was no compromise, but deep dissatisfaction on the part of the Puritans at the manner in which they had been brow-beaten by their royal umpire.

On the accession of Charles I, the Puritan element in the Church became very formidable and it was not long before it began to ally itself with the elements of political discontent. While Charles allied himself with the Arminians, or High

Church Party, the House of Commons allied itself with the Puritans, who, partly by natural tendency, partly by opposition adopted more than ever the extreme doctrines of Calvin.

518. **Laud.**— In order to enforce his views, Charles appointed as Archbishop of Canterbury, William Laud, a prelate, who had all along been the great opponent of Calvinism. He was zealous, but a narrow-minded, meddlesome sort of person. His views were exceedingly high-church, that is to say, he was inclined to such things as stained-glass windows, the use of vestments, the placing the table at the east end of the church. Laud had been fairly successful in enforcing his notions in England but when he tried to introduce the surplice and the Book of Common Prayer into Presbyterian Scotland he was met by an open revolt.

This revolt hastened the climax in England. For Charles, in his anxiety to subdue the Scotch was forced to depend upon parliament for supplies. But parliament knew this and were rather disposed to regard the Scotch as their friends. They granted no supplies but drew up the celebrated document called the Grand Remonstrance demanding better ministers and a more fitting administration of justice.

519. **Arrest of the Five Members.**— Charles was apparently utterly unable to grasp the seriousness of the situation. In the year 1642, he made an attempt in the House of Commons to arrest five members of the opposition who had especially incurred his displeasure. His attempt failed and it proved the signal for civil war. The citizens of London formed themselves into armed bodies for the defense of parliament. Charles on his part began to make immediate preparations for war.

520. **The Civil War** began in 1642 and lasted till 1646. On the side of Charles were Ireland, the middle and south-

west counties of England, while, on the side of parliament were Scotland, the eastern counties and London.

At first, the war went steadily in favor of Charles. This, however, was partly owing to the unwillingness of some of the parliamentary generals to destroy completely the royal forces. This defect was soon remedied when Cromwell, an able officer, came into power. At his suggestion, the old officers were dismissed and new men put in their places who could be relied upon for thoroughness. At the same time he himself completely remodeled the army, only admitting those men who were honest and God-fearing, and above all things full of religious zeal.

521. **Execution of Charles.**— The results were soon manifest. At Marston Moor and Naseby (1645) the royalist forces were shattered, and finally Charles himself became a prisoner. Even then his life might have been saved if not his crown. But his double-dealings cost him both one and the other. He carried on separate negotiations with the Scotch and with the parliament, playing off one against the other. At length Cromwell felt there was only one way out of the difficulty. In 1648 there was formed the Court of Justice, before which Charles was arraigned and condemned to be executed as a traitor. Accordingly in the month of January, 1649, Charles I was beheaded.

522. **Cromwell's Government.**— It was Cromwell's intention at first that England should be governed by a constitutional parliament. But his efforts in this direction proved unsuccessful. One parliament after another proved unmanageable and thought only of its own power and interests to the exclusion of aught else. Cromwell therefore had to carry on the work of government himself, and after some time assumed the protectorate. Indeed, one may loosely say that his rule

began from 1649, the year of Charles' execution, and lasted until his death in 1658.

These years were years of growing strength for England. Scotland and Ireland were conquered, and the royalist risings both in those countries and in England put down with merciless severity. Order and law were made supreme throughout the land and many regulations were introduced for the material amelioration of the people.

523. **Foreign Policy.**— Cromwell was especially strong in his foreign policy. The English fleet succeeded in beating the Dutch, who were now rivals with the English for the carrying trade of the world. Hostilities with Spain were rewarded by the conquest of Jamaica, and an alliance with France enabled England as we have seen already, to strike a blow at Spain in the Spanish Netherlands. In fact England made herself feared and respected all over Europe, and nations courted the friendship of Cromwell with an eagerness amounting almost to servility.

Oliver Cromwell. Born 1599. Ruler of England from 1653 until his death in 1658.

524. **The Puritans.**— During this period the Puritan element was paramount in religious affairs. The Bible was read by everybody and its quotations were freely mingled with ordinary discourse of daily life. Such offenses as swearing, drunkenness, and fornication, were forbidden by the law of the land. The severest form of censorship was held not only over the public, but even over the private lives of the citizens. The spirit of stern and upright morality reigned everywhere. It is true that this afterwards frequently degenerated into

hypocrisy, but for the time, such a system brought forth a race of men that became the terror of their enemies and the stuff of which heroes were made.

525. **Richard Cromwell.**— Cromwell died in 1658. He was succeeded by Richard Cromwell who was of a weak and somewhat conservative character. It was not long before a reaction in the direction of a monarchy began to make itself felt. The army, especially, began to show signs of a change. General Monk at the head of the branch of the army in Scotland made himself the intermediary between the nation and the exiled Prince Charles, son of Charles I.

A new House of Commons was summoned and in 1660, Prince Charles was invited to ascend the English throne. He accepted the invitation and was welcomed with wild outbursts of loyal enthusiasm.

526. **Under Charles II** England ceases to be one of the prime factors in European politics and for some years plays only a subordinate part to France now in the zenith of her greatness under Louis XIV.

527. **Colonial Expansion of England.**— During all the turmoil of political strife, we must not loose sight of the colonial expansion of England, which was indirectly benefited by the struggles at home. Already, in the time of Elizabeth, the restless spirit of adventure had lead English seamen to explore the western seas. And while the French were settling in Canada, the English were forming important settlements on the fringe of the coast lower down. During the reign of Elizabeth, Sir Walter Raleigh founded the colony of Virginia. Under the auspices of the London Company, the colony grew in numbers and in prosperity. By 1619, its inhabitants enjoyed all the privileges of a real representative

government. It enjoyed a legislature, consisting of representatives from the boroughs. These representatives could make all needful laws subject to the approval of the Governor and of the Company in England.

So far, the English colonists had come from the wealthiest and more liesurely classes of English society. They were aristocratic in their education and tendencies, and the distinctive feature of their colonial settlements was the foundation of large plantations separated by wide distances.

528. **Puritan Emigrations.**— But during the struggle between the Stuarts and the Puritan party in England, there took place another stream of emigration of a distinctly different type. Failing to obtain toleration in their own country, the Puritans in England were driven to seek for a home elsewhere. In 1628, John Endicott led the first party of emigrants to the Plymouth shores of Massachusetts. Only two years afterwards, John Winthrop lead another party of Puritan settlers also to Massachusetts but to a point further north, at what is now called Boston.

529. **Constitution of Massachusetts.**— It was not long before the colonists established a form of government that was practically free. By 1634, a House of Representatives was formed, consisting of two representatives from each town, while in 1692, the Charter of King William allowed, (a) the people to choose an assembly, the members of which, in their turn, were to choose an upper house subject to the approval of the governor. (b) Both houses to make laws subject to the approval of the Governor. (c) The lower house to levy taxes. This last measure was of great importance. It involved the power of the purse over which so long and desperate a struggle had been fought between the English King and parliament.

530. **Character of the Massachusetts Colonists.**— It was not long before the peculiar character of the Massachusetts colonists vigorously asserted itself, both in intellectual and material expansion. Unlike the Virginians, their ranks were filled mainly from the middle class of English society. Their minds were full of the political and social problems of the day, and the very inhospitability and inclemency of the soil became a powerful stimulus, constantly urging them to put forth their best energies. Massachusetts soon became a powerful colony and was well able to take a leading part in the great struggles that were impending; first, the struggle between the English speaking colonists and the French in Canada, and afterwards, the struggle between the colonists and the mother country.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Religious strife in France — Massacre of St. Bartholomew — Renewed agitations of the Huguenots — Henry of Navarre succeeds as Henry IV — Sincerity of his conversion — Edict of Nantes and its importance — Growth of material prosperity under the Duke of Sully — Henry IV centralized system — Character and abilities of Cardinal Richelieu — His formation of a strong centralized power in France — His foreign policy directed against the House of Austria — He enlarges the boundaries of France — Cardinal Mazarin — Success of his foreign policy — Treaty of the Pyrenees — Early disputes between Charles I and his Parliament — His despotic rule — Petition of Right — Archbishop Laud — His religious policy in Scotland raises a revolt — Parliament connives with the Scotch — Beginning of civil war — Remodelling of the Puritan army — Cromwell's victories at Marston Moor and at Naseby — Execution of Charles — Cromwell's administration — Uprisings in Scotland and in Ireland suppressed — Cromwell's successful wars against the Spanish and the Dutch — Cromwell's death — The reaction in favor of monarchy — Accession of Charles II.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

Bussey and Caspey, *History of France;* Baird, *Rise of the Huguenots;* Adams, *Growth of French Nation;* Wilbert, *Henry of Navarre;* Per-

KINS, *Richelieu and Mazarin;* MACKINNON, *Growth and Decline of the French Monarchy;* GARDINER, *Puritan Revolution;* CLARENDON, *History of the Great Rebellion;* GARDINER, *Constitutional Documents of Puritan Revolution;* FIRTH, *Cromwell;* HENDERSON, *Side Lights on English History.*

CHAPTER XXV

THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV

531. **The Greatness of France.**— The reign of Louis XIV saw France at the very summit of its greatness. What Spain had been, that France had now become. France was now the center of European politics, both in war and peace, and the fate of nations awaited her disposal.

Nor was this greatness merely transitory, the effect of any mere passing combination of circumstances. It was the solid result of the evolution of centuries. From the time of Louis IX, France had been consolidating her strength, and now stood foremost among the nations.

532. **Louis XIV Takes Control.**— We have seen that Cardinal Mazarin was prime minister while Louis XIV was still a minor. And even when he became of age he was still content to leave the reins of government in the hands of so able a minister. Indeed Louis' favorite occupation seemed to denote a temperament particularly adverse to the details of state business. Most of his time was taken up in hunting, dancing and in light diversions.

On the death of Mazarin (1661), however, an unexpected change took place. It was thought that Louis would still remain in the background and Fouquet, the most active and ambitious of the ministers, aspired to take Mazarin's place. So certain was he of his own promotion that to honor the occasion he even entertained his sovereign to a banquet which must have cost a substantial fortune. But his hopes were almost immediately dashed to the ground. Louis resolved to be his own prime minister. Fouquet was arrested on charges

of peculation and treason, and his permanent imprisonment shortly afterward successfully prevented him from any further interference.

533. **Character of Louis XIV.**— The personality of Louis now becomes of importance. He does not seem to have possessed much original ability but he well knew how to fill his position with dignity. Forces quite independent of himself had elevated him into a high position, but once there he knew how to become a graceful and efficient figurehead. His majestic manners and stately bearing, his innate sense of decorum made him a leader of fashion. And fashion was a serious element that now had to be reckoned with in European politics.

Louis XIV. Born 1638; King of France from 1643 until his death in 1715.

The court of France soon became famous for its splendor and for the formality of its etiquette. All the king's acts were done in public. Even his levee on rising in the morning became a kind of social reception, his different articles of apparel being handed to him through the hands of a hierarchy of officials.

It would, however, be an injustice to think that Louis had no more serious qualities than these. There were, as a matter of fact, few who could devote themselves so assiduously to business. He could work from morning till night like a clerk behind his desk. More than this, he could appreciate the value of a broad policy like that of Richelieu and he could con-

serve that policy with his own instruments. Then again, whether by good fortune or by a keen discernment of character, he surrounded his person with ministers whose abilities were fitted them for their respective posts.

Such was the personality of the autocrat whose will was for many years to sway the destinies of Europe. We may now consider the Age of Louis XIV from two points of view, first, the internal condition and progress of France itself, secondly, the relations between France and the other powers of Europe.

534. **Domestic Policy of Louis XIV.**— The centralizing policy of Richelieu and Mazarin was brought to its completion by Louis. This he did by still further depressing any elements in the state that still showed signs of independent activity. The clergy he tried to keep in their place by admitting no more ecclesiastics to his councils; the parliaments he reduced to nonentity by preventing them from making any remonstrances before registering his royal edicts; the lower orders he treated with humiliating contempt.

Louis was determined that he alone should be master. It is true that he organized a system in which each activity of the state as education, war or agriculture, had its own special department with its trained officials, but he himself was to be the central pulsating organ of the whole system,— the center, whose every throb should be felt by every individual in the remotest part of the kingdom.

The ministers, however, who assisted him in this great work were men of special ability. While they were placed in a position of absolute subordination to him they were men whose specialized skill redounded to his own credit.

535. **Domestic Policy of Colbert.**— On the death of Mazarin Colbert became Procurator General of the finances. His administration gave an immediate impetus to almost every department of trade and commerce.

Colbert at once reformed the system of taxation which had again become vexatious without profiting the country. Those who had misappropriated the taxes were called to account and severely punished. Having insured to the crown the reception of its revenues, he discharged the heavy debts due from the treasury by a compromise which amounted almost to a bankruptcy discharge.

He then tried to lessen the burden of taxation upon the people by depending less upon direct and more upon indirect taxation, that is to say, he raised taxes on the actual buying and consumption of goods, and imposed heavy excise and stamp duties.

Colbert also employed every means for increasing the natural wealth of the kingdom. He fostered native manufactures by discouraging the importation of foreign-made goods and by granting to manufacturers such privileges as monopolies, honors, and bounties. No doubt, this protection of native industry did harm in the long run by making the manufacturer too dependent on the state and by interfering with the natural laws of trade. But the immediate effects of the system were good. Manufacturers received at least a start.

Colbert also brought the French navy into a flourishing condition. Besides building large dock-yards, and increasing the large port town of Marseilles, he sent consuls to different places on the Mediterranean, who largely increased French trade.

Nor did Colbert neglect the means of internal communication. The old roads were repaired and new ones constructed. It was Colbert who first recognized the immense importance of canals as cheap and easy means of freighting goods.

One remarkable project of his was that of making a canal to connect the Mediterranean coast of France with its coast bordering the Atlantic.

In other departments as well Colbert showed remarkable

activity. The drawing up for the first time of a table of statistics, the formation of a magnificent library, the formation of a commercial code of law, the institution of the Academies of Science and of Architecture, the erection of the Hotel des Invalides, of the Façade of the Louvre, and of the triumphal arches of St. Denis and St. Martin — all these testify to his versatile ability.

536. **Le Tellier and Louvois, as Ministers of War** accomplished great reforms. Under their supervision, the French army underwent a considerable improvement. Uniforms were for the first time introduced. Not only did these uniforms serve the purpose of distinguishing the soldier from the civilian, but they also gave greater respectability and attraction to the military profession.

The discipline of the army was improved, and the introduction of the bayonet added to its fighting power. Hitherto the spear or pike had been used separately from the firearm. Now a short spear was attached to the fire arm itself and the weapon could thus serve a double purpose.

Connected with improvements in the army might also be mentioned the wonderful advance made in the art of military fortification. This was mainly owing to the genius of a great engineer.

537. **Vauban** had already attracted attention by the skill with which he constructed the long trenches connecting several lines of approach. His acquaintance with the weaknesses of the enemy's fortifications soon enabled him to improve the fortifications of his own country. Under his direction a great number of important forts were constructed, and old ones were greatly improved.

Even at the present day, the principles laid down by Vauban are followed in the construction of fortresses. His great merit

seems to have been the discarding of a great number of arbitrary precepts and the introduction of a few simple rules applicable to buildings of all dimensions.

What has been said will suffice to show how Louis by his choice of trained experts knew how to develop all the resources of the country — financial, economic, artistic, and military. But something ought still to be said regarding the colonial policy of Louis XIV.

538. **Colonial Policy.**— This more than anything else perhaps may be considered as his own particular department. Soon after the discovery of America, various colonies had been established in the great continent of the west. There were the English colonies established in the eastern part of our present United States, the Spanish colonies in the Californias, the French in Canada and along the banks of the Mississippi. These French colonies were regarded with peculiar pride by Louis XIV who dreamed of a great and permanent empire beyond the seas.

539. **Religious Policy.**— There is still one thing that is missing in our estimate of Louis, and that is his policy in matters of religion. During the early part of his reign he was content to follow the policy laid down by Richelieu and Mazarin. But during the last half of his reign when Colbert, his most prudent adviser, had passed away and when his head began to be intoxicated with success he adopted a new and aggressive policy of his own.

The Calvinists had become thriving and prosperous, and Louis longed for their conversion to the Catholic faith. At first, peaceful measures were resorted to. But when the Calvinists turned a deaf ear to promises and bribes, forcible measures were adopted. Their taxes were increased, they were debarred from promotion in the state and in society, and finally

anticipating the conduct of the English government troops in Ireland, troops of soldiers were quartered on Calvinist families, in the hopes that rough treatment might aid the persuasions of the missionary preachers. At length the climax was reached by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685. By this deed all toleration was at once done away with. The effects on the prosperity of France were disastrous. Not only did the continual flight of the Calvinists to other countries weaken the industrial and money-making population of France, but when France was surrounded by a ring of foes the revolt of the Calvinists in the interior of France considerably impeded Louis' movements.

540. **The Jansenists.**— Another element of religious strife was furnished by the rise of the Jansenists. In opposition to the political tendencies and lax principles of some of the clergy, a sect was founded by Cornelius Jansen, bishop of Ypres, and by Jean du Vergier, Abbot of St. Cyran. The center of the society was at Port-Royal near Versailles. Not only did the Jansenists become conspicuous for their strictness of life but their doctrines also were in some respects divergent from the established beliefs.

Serious attention began to be aroused when the pope condemned five propositions supposed to be contained in a book by Jansen. The Jansenites screened themselves by maintaining that the five propositions were not contained in the book at all and that the pope not being infallible in matters of faith could not have decided whether the propositions were contained therein.

The controversy gathered in intensity until at length Clement XI published a bull in which he declared that the pope is infallible in deciding questions of dogmatic facts (1705).

This decision, however, did not quiet the Jansenists.

After the death of Jansen, a French Orator called Quesnel

became their leader. He issued a book called "Moral Reflections." The book was undoubtedly full of pious enthusiasm, but certain propositions were decidedly Jansenistic and in 1713 one hundred and one propositions were condemned as such by Pope Clement XI, in his bull called the "Unigenitus."

The refusal of the Jansenists to accept this bull meant their complete severance from the Church. Even in our own times the sect of the Jansenists exists in Holland. They still admit the primacy of the pope, and they still have orders that are recognized as valid by Catholics, but the pope refuses to have any dealings with them until they accept the bull "Unigenitus."

In France, however, the sect rapidly died out. This was chiefly owing to the hostility of Louis XIV who objected to them partly for the same reason that he objected to the Calvinists.

Before finishing with the religious aspect of France under Louis XIV there is still one other movement that has to be considered.

541. Quarrel With the Pope.— The king of France had always enjoyed the right of receiving the revenues of vacant bishopics and of appointing the livings within these bishopics. But there were four exceptions, namely, the dioceses of Guienne, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné. Louis' attempt to extend his right to the four provinces brought him into collision with the pope. Accordingly, Louis in order to substantiate his claim convened a national synod attended by the Jesuits and many of the compliant clergy.

542. The Gallican Propositions.— In this synod (1682), the following four propositions were laid down: (1) that in temporal matters, the temporal power is independent of the spiritual; (2) that a general council is superior to the pope;

(3) that the apostolic power is restricted by the canons and by the rules, manners and customs of the Gallican Kingdom; (4) that the judgment of the pope is not irreversible until conferred by the consent of the whole Church.

These four propositions were drawn up by Bossuet, a celebrated French preacher. He, however, afterwards repented of his attitude on this question. Moreover, in 1697 the four propositions were formally abrogated and the French clergy made their repentant submission to the Holy See.

543. **Relations With Foreign Countries.**— We have already indicated that the domestic policy of Louis XIV might be divided into chronological periods, the earlier and the later. During the earlier period, under the able administration of Colbert he was uniformly successful; during the later period there were disturbances that combined with his own high-handed policy to diminish his previous success. The same might be said of his foreign policy.

This also might be divided into two periods, the first extending from his assumption of power up to the treaty of Nymeguen in 1678, and the second period dating from this treaty onwards. During the first period Louis contented himself with successfully pursuing the policy of Richelieu and Mazarin, a policy which consisted in restoring what had been the natural boundaries of France. But after the treaty of Nymeguen he abandoned this moderate policy and laid himself out for a policy of mere conquest and aggrandizement.

544. **Weakness of the French Frontier.**— The frontier whose weakness was the most immediate source of danger to France was the Northeast. On the other side of this frontier were the Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté, or Free Country. Naturally these provinces were the first object of Louis' attention.

An excuse was not wanting for commencing hostilities. His wife, Maria Theresa, was the elder sister of the Spanish king, and through her he laid claim to several provinces in the Netherlands. There was indeed no reason why he should limit his claim here, and as a matter of fact he afterwards published a little treatise in which he laid claim to the whole.

545. **Attack on the Netherlands.**— In 1667 Louis invaded the Netherlands and Franche-Comté. The campaign was one peculiarly adapted to Louis' temperament. There were no dangerous pitched battles, but only sieges in which Louis loved to make his camp spectacular for its grandeur and magnificence. The enemy were weak and could make little resistance. Town after town fell into Louis' hands and Franche-Compté was completely overrun by French troops.

546. **The Triple Alliance.**— These successes, however, inspired Holland with the greatest alarm. She recognized in the Spanish Netherlands a useful buffer state between herself and France, and was determined not to have such an ambitious neighbor dwelling at her very gates. She therefore sought the aid of England and Sweden and thus in 1668 was formed the famous Triple Alliance consisting of those three countries.

Louis found it prudent to yield and he signed the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668), by which he gave up Franche-Compté but was allowed to retain some important towns along the Flemish frontier.

547. **Attack on Holland.**— Louis' retreat was however, only the backward step to another leap forward. Holland now became the direct object of his attack. For it was Holland that had been so active against him in the Triple Alliance. Moreover, even before the war of Spanish Netherlands there had been a keen rivalry between the Dutch and the French

mercantile fleets. Indeed, some of the protective duties of Colbert had been in effect an economic war against Holland. Besides all this Louis had the greatest aversion and contempt for those whom he considered as a plebeian nation of common heretical shop-keepers.

But he was determined this time to be foiled by no adverse league. He endeavored to isolate Holland before attacking her. And in this he was greatly helped by the perfection of the French diplomatic service. Sweden was detached from the Triple Alliance and Charles II of England was even induced to give Louis active assistance. Intervention from Germany was guarded against by bribing several of the German princes, while Spain owing to her decline might now be considered a negligible quantity.

But the resistance offered by Holland was stronger than be expected. The heroic resistance of the Dutch under their able general, William of Orange, considerably delayed the movements of the French army. And every delay meant danger to the success of Louis' plans. For the nations were again taking alarm at the aggressions of France. Another league was concluded which included the emperor, Spain, Holland, Denmark, and finally even England, and a second time Louis found it prudent to retire from the conflict.

Though Louis had had to fight against many more foes than during his campaign against the Spanish Netherlands, he came out of it with much more signal success.

548. **The Treaty of Nymeguen** was signed in 1678. France not only obtained possession of all the important frontier towns in the Netherlands but she also obtained permanent possession of Franche-Compté.

549. **The Period of Aggressive Policy (1678-1714).**— We now enter upon the second period of the foreign policy of

Louis. He now abandons the conservative policy of merely strengthening the frontiers of France and embarks upon a policy of conquest and aggression which was to end disastrously for France.

He began first in the debatable region between France and Germany. The bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun had been ceded to France with their dependencies. But the question rose as to what were these dependencies. A similar question also rose regarding the other territories that had been ceded to Louis. This gave an opportunity for interference. He set up certain prize courts as they would be termed in our days, and these prize courts being under his influence gave their decision all along the line in Louis' favor. Then, not content with legal pilfering of this kind he openly and unwarrantably seized the city of Strasburg. Nor could the emperor at that time make any resistance, for his hands were tied by the invasion of the Turks in the lower parts of the empire.

550 **Attack on the Palatinate.**— About three years after this, Louis perpetrated another great wrong. In 1685 the Elector Palatine died and Louis at once put in an unfounded claim to the regions of the Lower Palatinate. Germany resisted his claim but he appealed to force. And so a district of about thirty miles in extent containing opulent and flourishing towns was devastated with every circumstance of cruelty. Especially worthy of regret was the destruction of the beautiful city of Heidelburg on the Rhine.

Such wanton aggressions could no longer be tolerated, and in 1686 a defensive league was formed against France, consisting of Germany, Spain, Sweden, and Holland. Even the pope himself who had been grossly insulted by Louis joined the League. But as yet the League could do very little in the way of actual war. It was reserved for Louis himself to com-

mit that one vital mistake which had the effect of checking his whole future career.

551. **William of Orange Becomes King of England.**— It was just at this time that the people of England being angered at the absolute rule and Catholic tendencies of James II, the last of the Stuart kings, offered the English throne to his son-in-law, William of Orange. William at first was obliged to hesitate for Louis might have seized the opportunity of invading Holland during his absence. But Louis committed the fatal mistake of invading Germany. When Louis and his army were thus safely out of the way in Germany, William at once set sail for England and accepted the English throne.

Thus, Louis' greatest enemy, the most determined and skilled organizer of the forces arrayed against him was in a position to strike. Soon France was surrounded on all sides by a ring of foes. The French generals though able men were gradually driven back. At sea, French commerce was seriously crippled by having to face two such powerful fleets as those of England and Holland.

552. **Treaty of Ryswick.**— Louis, therefore, began to set on foot negotiations and the result of these was the Treaty of Ryswick (1697). The terms of this treaty showed how much weaker had become the position of Louis. It was substantially a list of French concessions. Louis had to give up all conquests made since the Treaty of Nymeguen, with the exception of Alsace. Lorraine was yielded into the hands of its lawful owner, Duke Leopold. The provisions of the treaty most harmful to French interests were the occupation of the frontier towns of the Spanish Netherlands by Dutch garrisons as security against French aggressions, and the recognition by Louis of the sovereignty of William in England. By the

first of these clauses Louis lost part of the fruits of even his earlier conquests, and by the second he recognized the commanding position of his hated rival, William of Orange.

553. **War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714).**— One would have imagined that after this humiliation Louis would have desisted from dreams of conquest and aggrandizement. Moreover, his treasury was nearly depleted and the fighting strength of the nation considerably reduced. But it was precisely now that Louis began to push forward the most aggressive of all his schemes.

554. **The Spanish Succession.**— Ever since the accession of Louis XIV, the question of the succession to the Spanish throne had been uppermost in the minds of statesmen. Charles II, the reigning king of Spain, was of an extremely delicate constitution and liable to die any moment. In such an event there were three claimants to the Spanish throne. These were the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, the Archduke Charles of Austria and the son or grandson of Louis XIV. The death, however, of the electoral prince of Bavaria soon left the field open only to the other two contestants.

Louis saw clearly the risk of grasping at the whole, for the union of the two kingdoms of Spain and France would upset the balance of power and would probably provoke a general war. He therefore drew up a treaty of partition between himself and the Archduke Charles of Austria by which Charles was to have Spain, the Netherlands, Sardinia, and the colonies, while Louis' son, Philip Duke of Anjou, was to have Naples, Sicily, the ports of Tuscany, and the Duchy of Lorraine.

The king and the people of Spain however strongly resented foreign interference and this arbitrary division of their territories. They began to choose for themselves and partly owing to French diplomatic influence and partly to the advice of the

pope the Spanish king drew up a will in which he left all his possessions to Philip, Duke of Anjou.

555. **Louis Claims Spain.**— Shortly after this, the Spanish king died. At once Louis XIV had to decide the important question. Should he abide by the treaty and thus be sure of at least a part, or should he abide by the will and try for the whole? He decided on the latter alternative.

The immediate results justified his decision. There was of course much fierce indignation. But then the matter would have dropped, for William could not persuade the English parliament to declare war. But Louis himself again committed a mistake that placed him at the mercy of his antagonists. He expelled the Dutch garrisons from the fortresses of the Netherlands and put French garrisons in their place.

556. **The Grand Alliance.**— At once this was the signal for war. The English parliament supported William with all its might, and William now set on foot the Grand Alliance for the frustration of Louis' plans. England, Germany, Holland, Austria, and later on, Portugal and Savoy joined together for the purpose of removing the French claimant from the Spanish throne and especially of restoring the barrier between France and Holland.

557. **Marlborough and Eugene.**— The first military leader of the allies was the renowned Duke of Marlborough and second to him was Prince Eugene of Savoy. During the struggle, the important battle of Blenheim was fought in Bavaria, and the battle of Ramillies, Oudinard, and Malplaquet in the Netherlands. All these batttles were won by the allies. But France was not altogether a loser. Spain sided with her, and it was in Spain that French arms met with success. Also the French generals were men of considerable skill and succeeded for some time in holding the allies in check.

558. Treaty of Utrecht.— But at length France became weary of the struggle and in England the ministry that had been most responsible for the war was supplanted by another eager for peace. When the main contestants in the struggle were thus anxious for peace hostilities speedily subsided and in 1714 was made the important treaty of Utrecht between all the belligerent powers except the emperor.

The terms of the treaty were as follows:

(a) The French obtained the recognition of Philip as king of Spain though Philip had to renounce all future claims to the French crown.

(b) England obtained Gibraltar and Minorca, also Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson Bay; she also secured the line of Protestant succession on her own throne.

(c) The Duke of Savoy, Prince Eugene, received the Kingdom of Sicily.

(d) The House of Brandenburg in Prussia was rewarded for its share in the struggle by obtaining the province of Upper Gelderland and by being raised to the dignity of a kingdom.

With the Treaty of Utrecht ended the last war of Louis. His schemes of universal conquest were certainly not realized, but France had brilliantly defied the whole of Europe, and though she had suffered some loss, she still remained one of its first powers. Great indeed must have been her internal strength to have stood as she did the shock of so many wars.

Within a few years after the Treaty of Utrecht Louis XIV died and was succeeded by his son Louis XV.

559. Charles II of England.— During the war of Louis XIV against Holland England had been the ally of France. Charles II did not hesitate to accept French gold in order to make himself independent of Parliament. In the secret treaty of Dover (1670) drawn up between himself and Louis, Charles

promised to establish Catholicism in England and to join Louis in the attack on Holland, provided Louis would give him an annual allowance of two hundred thousand pounds and the assistance of French troops in case of an uprising. The terms of this treaty were kept secret even from the majority of Charles' own ministers. But the general drift of Charles' policy could not be kept secret.

560. **Domestic Affairs.**— More important than the foreign policy of England is her internal history during this period. War against Holland was indeed declared and an attack made upon the Dutch fleet, but Parliament refused to support the war and Charles was practically disabled from giving to Louis any continued assistance.

Again the religious question arose and formed a great disturbing element. In the early part of Charles' reign, attempts were made to force the Church of England upon the people. There were passed in quick succession the Corporation Act which allowed only Anglicans or members of the state church of England to hold office, the Act of Uniformity which compelled every clergyman, every Fellow of a college, and every schoolmaster to accept the Book of Common Prayer and to swear that resistance to the crown was unlawful; the Conventicle Act which forbade religious meetings other than those of the Church of England, the Five Mile Act which prevented clergymen save bona fide clergymen of the Church of England from settling within five miles of a corporate town and from teaching in schools.

By these acts, all those who differed from the teaching and practice of the Anglican Church were driven from her pale. Even to this day there remains the line of distinction between the Anglican Church and dissenters.

561. **The Test Act.**— Another disturbing religious element was Charles' tendencies to Catholicism. When it became

known that several Catholics held offices of high trust, a wave of anti-Catholic agitation began to rise throughout the country. Soon Parliament passed the celebrated Test Act by which all persons in office had to take an oath denying the doctrine of transubstantiation. The immediate result of this was that the Duke of York, the king's own brother and future heir to the crown resigned his position as High Admiral. The Protestant party now went further than this and tried by an exclusion act to exclude James from the succession. But a strong reaction set in and on the death of Charles II in 1685 James was allowed to succeed.

562. **The Reign of James II** was remarkable for the culmination of the religious difficulty that had been bequeathed to him by Charles. For James II was a pronounced Roman Catholic. He introduced Catholics into his privy council, he gave Catholics important positions in the Church and in the universities and through the Earl of Tyrconnel he attempted to place Catholics in the state offices in Ireland. Finally, matters came to a crisis when James passed the Declaration of Indulgences, which by virtue of the King's dispensing power, did away with all penal laws against nonconformity including Catholicism.

While the temper of the nation was thus being aroused at the relaxation of the penal laws against the Catholics, the news was spread that the queen had given birth to a son. Up till now, Mary, the Protestant daughter of James and wife of William of Orange, had been the nearest heir. But she was now excluded from the succession by one who would doubtless be brought up a Catholic.

563. **William and Mary.**— The nation therefore offered the English crown to William of Orange. It was accepted. James II fled to France and in 1689, William and Mary as-

ceded the throne by act of Parliament. This event is known as the English Revolution.

The part taken by William in the Grand Alliance against France has already been explained. The domestic aspect of his reign now demands our attention.

His accession marked a distinct progress in the English Constitution. The king now reigns explicitly only by act of Parliament and there are now two ways in which the king is now kept dependent upon Parliament. First, there was the annual budget. This means that every year a financial statement has to be made to Parliament, after which it is decided what taxes should be imposed and to what purpose they should be applied. Such an arrangement as this inevitably takes the power of the purse completely out of the king's hands. Second there is the Mutiny Bill, which renews each year the authority of officers in the army. Thus if in any year the Mutiny Bill were not passed, the army would *ipso facto* be dissolved.

564. **Queen Anne.**— William died in 1702 and in the same year was succeeded by Queen Anne. She carried on successfully the anti-French policy of her predecessor and it was during her reign that the great general, the Duke of Marlborough won against the French the victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet.

The two most important home events of her reign are:

(a) The union of Scotland with England in 1707. One parliament now governed the two countries while Scotland shared in all the English rights of trade. Also the Scotch Church and the Scotch law were to be left undisturbed. Scotland gained considerably from this union and it is from this date that her most important commercial towns begin to make their appearance.

(b) The rise of party government in England. This means that government in England came to be carried on by

the political party that enjoyed a majority of votes in the country. There were at that time in England two great political parties, the Whigs, who corresponded to our present day liberals and the Tories who correspond to the conservatives. If for example, a majority of Whigs were elected to Parliament, then government would be carried on by the Whigs; on the other hand, a majority of Tory votes would mean a Tory government.

At first the sovereign chose the ministers, but later on even this duty fell into the hands of the leader of the majority.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Slow growth of the French power — Character of Louis XIV — Splendor of his court — Louis' skill in choosing ministers — Centralizing policy of Louis — Colbert as minister of finance — Economic reforms of Colbert — Important public works constructed by Colbert — His activity in matters of learning and of education — Le Tellier and Louvois as war ministers — Improvements in the army — Vauban the engineer — Religious policy of Louis XV — his severity towards the Calvinists — The Jesuits and the Jansenists — Condemnation of the Jansenists — Louis' quarrel with the Pope — The four Gallican propositions — Early foreign policy of Louis — His war in the Spanish Netherlands — The Triple Alliance — Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle — Louis' war against Holland — He isolates her — Holland's heroic resistance — Another league against Louis — Treaty of Nymegnen — Second Period — Louis' aggressive policy in Alsace — In the Palatine — Another league formed against him — Louis' fatal mistake in attacking Germany — William III of England — France beaten in the war — Treaty of Ryswick — War of the Spanish Succession — Causes that lead up to the War — Louis *versus* the Grand Alliance — Battles of Blenheim — Ramillies, Audenardi and Malplaquet — Treaty of Utrecht — Charles II's foreign policy — His severity to France — Secret Treaty of Dover — Religious policy of Charles — Act of Uniformity — Conventicle Act — Charles' religious convictions — The Test Act — Accession of James II — The dispensing power — Dethronement of James II — Accession of William III — Constitutional position of the King — Reign of Queen Anne — Union of Scotland with England — Rise of Party Government in England.

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CHAPTER XXVI

THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION

565. **Rise of Prussia.**— During all the wars that had been devastating Europe, the house of Hohenzollern had been steadily rising in power and influence. By the Treaty of Westphalia after the Thirty Years' War it had obtained part of Pomerania together with the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Magdeburg, while by private contract it had secured certain territories in Cleves, Mark, and Ravensburg. Then, in 1697 it dexterously made use of the ambition of Charles X of Sweden to secure the independent possession of the Duchy of Prussia. Later on, during the wars of Louis XIV, it procured from the emperor as the price of its support the erection of Prussia into a kingdom (1701).

Circumstances, no doubt, were partly responsible for this, but the Hohenzollern rulers were generally men of marked ability who knew how to profit by circumstances. There was Frederick William, the Great Elector (1640–1688), who founded a firm tradition of a strong military policy. After him came, in 1688, his son, Frederick I, who acquired the title of king and who also deserves mention as being the founder of the University of Halle and of the Academies of Sculpture and Painting at Berlin. In 1713, he was succeeded by his son Frederick William I. It was this king who made the Prussian army the most efficient fighting machine in Europe and who instituted the regiment of the Potsdam Guards, famous for the height of its soldiers. Of equal importance were his financial reforms, such as the improvement of the system of taxation and the foundation of what are now some of the richest manufactories of Prussia.

566. **Frederick the Great.**— In the year 1740 Frederick William I died and was succeeded by his son Frederick II surnamed the Great.

This monarch carried still further the financial improvements inaugurated by his father, and it is interesting to note that he was the first who in any way dreamed of a German naval policy, insisting on the rights of free navigation for all his subjects. Frederick was also interested in law, and his chancellor drew up the "Frederican Code of Laws," the object of which was to simplify legal proceedings in the kingdom. He was also a man of considerable French culture and wrote the memoirs of the "House of Brandenburg," and other works with all the qualities of a good French style.

Frederick the Great. Born 1712; died 1786.

But the most eventful aspect of Frederick the Great's reign was his policy of expansion, for this had direct and important influence on general European politics.

567. **The Pragmatic Sanction.**— The reigning emperor of Austria was Charles VI. He had no male heirs but he was

anxious that all his possessions should descend intact to his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa. Accordingly, before his death he procured the consent of most of the European Powers to the "Pragmatic Sanction" by which they guaranteed the succession of Maria Theresa to all his dominions.

Charles died in 1740 but with the exception of the doubtful friendship of England not one of the guarantors proved in any way faithful to the contract.

568. **Coalition Against Austria.**— Indeed, the same causes that prepared the way for the partition of Poland were present also in Austria. The treasury was depleted, the army in a weakened condition, while there was also a general want of cohesion between the different parts of the Austrian dominions. Moreover, the Austrian dominions, on account of their very extent, offered a tempting prize. In addition to Austria proper and Bohemia there were the Netherlands and certain states in Italy.

France was really the prime instigator of the coalition, but the Prussians gave the signal by invading Austrian Silesia, which they conquered by the battles of Mollwitz and Chotusitz. The European states then set their armies in motion. France, Spain, Saxony, and Bavaria, all attacked the Austrian possessions at the most convenient points of assault.

569. **Maria Theresa,** however, was a woman of spirit. When the French were at the very gates of Vienna she fled to Hungary and threw herself upon the loyalty and support of her Hungarian subjects. With their aid she speedily drove the French and Bavarians out of her hereditary dominions.

England was called upon to be faithful to her duty by upholding the Pragmatic Sanction. But a peace party was then in power. The leaders of this party advised Maria Theresa to buy off Frederick the Great by ceding to him Silesia. Maria

Maria Theresa appealing to the Hungarian Parliament.

EUROPE
about 1740
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200 250 300
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
English Channel
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
K. OF GREAT BRITAIN
K. OF FRANCE
K. OF SPAIN
K. OF PORTUGAL
SWITZERLAND
SARDINIA
CORSICA
MAJORCA
MINORCA
London
Dublin
Madrid
Lisbon
Paris
Rome
Vienna
Berlin
Amsterdam
Brussels
Geneva
Milan
Turin
Naples
Venice
Genoa
Marseilles
Barcelona
Valencia
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Algiers
Tunis
Malta
Constantinople
Longitude West
Longitude East

15°
20°
25°
30°
35°
40°
45°
50°
55°
60°
45°
40°
35°
East 15° from Greenwich 20°
25°
30°
35°
K. OF SWEDEN
K. OF POLAND
K. OF HUNGARY
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
BLACK SEA
Sea of Azof
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Constantinople
Danube
Dniester
Vistula
Dnieper
Don
Volga
Baltic Sea
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Gulf of Riga
Gulf of Venice
Adriatic Sea
Archipelago
Mediterranean Sea
Sea of Marmora
Black Sea
Stockholm
Petersburg
Moscow
Riga
Warsaw
Lublin
Kief
Minsk
Vilna
Konigsberg
Dantzic
Berlin
Prague
Vienna
Buda
Pest
Belgrade
Bucharest
Jassy
Constantinople
Smyrna
Athens
Candia
Cyprus
Rhodes
Sicily
Naples
Rome
Venice
Trieste
Constantinople
Kaffa
Azof
Taganrog
Oczakow
Kherson
Bender
Ismail
Akerman
Kilia
Varna
Silistria
Rustchuk
Widin
Semlin
Belgrade
Sarajevo
Ragusa
Cattaro
Durazzo
Salonica
Gallipoli
Lepanto
Patras
Corinth
Modon
Navarin
Coron
Tripolitza
Napoli di Romania
Argos
Athens
Negropont
Scio
Mitylene
Smyrna
Ephesus
Adalia
Rhodes
Cyprus
Candia
Sea of Marmora
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Riga
Gulf of Finland
Gulf of Bothnia
Baltic Sea
Adriatic Sea
Archipelago
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Sea of Azof
Danube
Dniester
Vistula
Dnieper
Don
Volga

Theresa was bitterly chagrined at this lukewarmness in her favor, but circumstances compelled her to give way. She accordingly made with Frederick the treaty of Breslau (1742) by which she yielded to Frederick the greater part of Silesia. Perhaps some excuse may be made for the English ministers. They felt themselves obliged to uphold the Pragmatic Sanction by preventing the complete dismemberment of the Austrian Empire, but they did not feel obliged to prevent the loss to Austria of merely one or two provinces.

570. **The Second Silesian War** was fought soon after this treaty. This time, Maria Theresa was aided by England, Saxony, and Sardinia. Frederick again entered the Austrian possessions at the head of an invading army and even succeeded in taking Prague, the capital of Bohemia. This, however, was the high water mark of his success. He soon had to evacuate the country altogether. In Italy, the Austrians won the battle of Piacenza (1746) against the French and the Spaniards. Elsewhere, the campaign was fought out with varying success.

571. **The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle** (1748) at length terminated the War of the Austrian Succession. By the terms of this peace, the provisions of the Pragmatic Sanction were virtually carried out. Silesia, however, was left in the hands of Prussia and certain portions of the Milanese Territories were abandoned to Sardinia. These exceptions were the price that Austria had to pay in order to avoid more substantial losses.

Although the actual status of the European territories remained the same, the altered significance of European politics demands attention.

(a) Prussia by its seizure of Silesia had added to its boundaries and maintained its military reputation. But its

unjust attack on the Austrian dominions created a tradition of bitter hostility between itself and Austria.

(b) The kingdom of Sardinia now rises to a visible power and influence. The territory of the kingdom of Sardinia in the year 1720 comprised the Duchy of Savoy, Piedmont, Nice, Genoa, and the island of Sardinia. These possessions had been accumulated mainly by the skilful diplomacy of the dukes of Savoy. By siding now with one party, now with the other they generally secured something as a result of the strife of other powers. In 1720 Sardinia was added to their possessions and erected into a kingdom. And now by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the rulers of the house of Savoy, were called the kings of Sardinia, and gained considerable portions of Milanese territories.

572. **Spain** had shown during the war that she was gradually recovering from the miserable condition into which she had fallen during the years of Louis XIV. Under the able administration of the prime minister Alberoni and after him of Ripperda, the financial condition of the kingdom became improved, commerce revived, and the navy became rehabilitated. More than this, Spain even sought to regain some of her lost possessions in Italy. Nor was she unsuccessful. Parma and Piacenza became Spanish possessions for a considerable period of time.

573. **France,** on the other hand, showed that she had as yet hardly recovered from the shattering effects of the wars of Louis XIV. She had obtained nothing by taking part in the coalition against Austria. Moreover, Louis XV was an indolent, profligate monarch. The chief minister of the French court at this time was Cardinal Dubois, and after him, Cardinal Fleury. It was under the latter minister that France opposed the claims of Maria Theresa.

574. **Austria** had emerged from the terrible struggle with some losses, but with considerable vitality. Moreover, the internal administration of Maria Theresa had been very beneficial throughout the country. She established a general system of education supervised by a general council of studies; she improved the condition of the Bohemian serfs, promoted the interests of commerce by the construction of important canals, and instituted various judicial reforms.

She also had the satisfaction of finding her husband Francis of Lorraine elected emperor, and Austria was still in the proud position of being a possible nucleus of a future united Germany.

575. **George I,** on the death of Queen Anne (1714), ascended the throne. He was a stolid German, and spoke not a word of English. The practical conduct of affairs was therefore left entirely in the hands of his Whig ministers.

The chief foreign policy of the ministers was to uphold the provisions of the Treaty of Utrecht. For this purpose, they formed with France and Holland the Triple Alliance of 1717. In 1718 Germany also became a partner and thus completed the Quadruple Alliance against the designs of Spain in Italy.

576. **Domestic Affairs.**— With regard to the domestic history of England, perhaps the most important event was the rise to power of Sir Robert Walpole who was the first to be called Prime Minister. The immediate cause of his promotion was the bursting of the South Sea Bubble. This was a bogus company in which almost every class of society had shares. When the crash came, Sir Robert Walpole joined the government, and made arrangements by which the country was helped through its difficulties, and financial confidence was restored. In 1715, he became prime minister and first lord of the treasury.

577. **George II.**— George I. died in 1727 and was succeeded by his son George II. He was also a thorough German but he could speak English.

We have already seen the part taken by England in the War of the Austrian Succession. In order to help Maria Theresa King George himself headed an English army on the continent and in 1743 won a victory over the French at Dettingen. But two years later, at Fontenoy in the Netherlands, the Duke of Cumberland was defeated by the French. This French victory, the only one gained under Louis XV, prepared the way for the separation of the Netherlands from Austria and for their temporary absorption by France during the French Revolution.

578. **The Whig Party,** during this period, dominated English politics at home. Owing to the connection and to the supposed sympathy between the Tories and the exiled house of Stuart, the opposition was placed in a position of discredit and of great weakness. On the other hand all the instruments of maintaining themselves in power were at the disposal of the Whig party. They could engineer the elections both in the towns and in the country, and they could also bribe without limit both in the matter of granting offices and even by direct sums of money. However, the Whig administration was beneficial. It tended on the whole in the direction of peace, and it promoted the commercial prosperity of the country.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Rising power of the House of Hohenzollern — Hohenzollern Rulers — Frederick II — Pragmatic Sanction — Weak condition of the Austrian Empire — Battles of Mollvitz and Chotusitz — Treaty of Breslau — Second Silesian war — Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle — General condition of European politics — George I — England's foreign policy — England's domestic policy — Reign of George II — Dominance of the Whig party.

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CHAPTER XXVII

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR; COLONIAL EXPANSION OF ENGLAND

579. **Causes of the Seven Years' War.**— The War of the Austrian Succession contained within itself the germs of another war even wider and more momentous in character.

Austria bitterly grudged the sacrifice of Silesia to Prussia. The action of Frederick was itself provokingly unjustifiable. But besides this, the loss of Silesia meant the loss of one of the German speaking provinces and one of the most valuable parts of the Empire. Austria had also a bitter grudge against England. While England had indeed done something to prevent a complete dismemberment of the Austrian Empire yet it was her supineness that had contributed to the loss of Silesia.

On the other hand, the anger of France had been aroused against England. For it was England which had mainly opposed the French scheme of partitioning Austria. But even this grievance paled in importance before the bitter rivalry between the English and French colonies nearly all over the world.

580. **Coalition Against Prussia.**— The result was another war, another coalition and another attempt to partition a European nation. This time, Prussia was the intended victim. Against her were ranged France, Austria, Saxony, and Russia. On the side of Prussia was England, which again found itself on the side of the oppressed, and it was partly to English help that Frederick II was indebted for the successful defense that he made against almost overwhelming odds

Frederick II was not taken unawares. By private means,

he had obtained full information of all his enemies' plans. His position was desperate and he saw that the only and the best defense was at once to strike hard and swift blows before his enemies could slowly mature their plan and close in upon him.

581. **Invasion of Saxony.**— He therefore began the war by invading Saxony (1756). His army was successful against an Austrian army that opposed him and he then marched southward into Bohemia where he gained a second and still more signal victory over the Austrians. After this, he laid siege to Prague, but the approach of Daun, the Austrian general, changed the course of the war. Frederick then made the fatal mistake of dividing his army, allowing one part to continue the siege and the other to engage Daun. The result was a double failure. He was defeated at the battles of Kolin (1757) and he had to raise the siege of Prague.

Just at this moment the gathering forces of his opponents began to threaten the different frontiers of his own dominions.

582, **The Odds Against Frederick.**— In Hanover on the west, appeared the French who had just defeated an English army under the Duke of Cumberland; on the north were advancing the combined Russians and Swedes, and on the south was an army of French and Austrians. Frederick at once attacked the latter army and inflicted upon it a crushing defeat at Rossbach (1757). After this he marched into Silesia and after another crushing victory at Leuthen recaptured Breslau and the whole of Silesia from the Austrians. To make Frederick's position still better the Russians and Swedes retreated from Prussian territory and a new English army under the Duke of Brunswick appeared in Hanover, while the English government began to dole out to him liberal financial aid.

Frederick by the end of 1757, was thus still in a strong position. But he had now to face even greater dangers. Hitherto he had crossed swords with the Austrians but now he had to face the Russians who seemed to have been of sterner metal. It was only with difficulty that he defeated the Russians at the battle of Zorndorf, 1758, and later on at the battle of Kunnersdorf, (1759), he himself was completely routed by the combined armies of the Russians and of the Austrians. To offset this reverse he had only the English victory over the French at the battle of Minden in Hanover. This victory had the effect of keeping the enemy away from the western borders of the Prussian kingdom.

583. **Peter III Joins Frederick.**— Yet in 1761, the position of Frederick became critical. His kingdom was exhausted and it was becoming every day more difficult to hold up successfully against such a wide ring of foes. But fortunately at this juncture, affairs took a sudden and unexpected turn. The Empress Elizabeth of Russia his bitterest enemy died (1762), and was succeeded by Peter III, an ardent admirer of Frederick. Russia at once withdrew from the contest and made a treaty of alliance with Frederick. Besides this, the ardor of the French considerably cooled, partly owing to severe defeats at the hand of the English, partly owing to want of support from Spain.

Austria had thus to face Prussia single-handed and the war was necessarily brought to a speedy termination by the Treaty of Paris (1763). The provisions of this treaty mainly regard the settlement of the colonial rivalry between England and France. It will be necessary therefore to consider first of all the colonial aspect of the Seven Years' War.

584. **The Colonial Expansion of England.**— Towards the end of the sixteenth century nearly all the great states of

Europe had colonial settlements. Spain had established herself in a great part of South America and in the West Indies; Portugal had appropriated Brazil and had started certain trading stations in India, while Holland began to enter as a successful rival in India and the Spice Islands. But in the sixteenth century the two most important and active colonizing powers were England and France. Both of these powers had colonial settlements in North America and in India and, less extensively, in Africa.

When the Treaty of Utrecht was signed in 1714 the exact extent of the English possessions was as follows:

(a) In the New World, Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and what now constitutes the Atlantic border of the United States as far south as Savannah. There were also the Bermudas, Jamaica, and Barbados.

(b) In Africa; Gambia and the Isle of St. Helena.

(c) In India; the Island of Bombay and certain trading stations.

585. **Contest for Canada and India.**— The places where the English were successful rivals with the French were Canada and India. In 1754, began the real struggle between the French and the English for the possession of Canada. The French attempted to establish communication by means of the Great Lakes and of the Mississippi River between Canada and Louisiana. This policy implied an intention to confine the English colonies to the strip of territory between the Atlantic sea-board and the Appalachian Mountains.

In the struggle that ensued, the English were at first unsuccessful. General Braddock was inexperienced in guerrilla warfare and in attempting to capture Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg) fell into an ambuscade of French and Indians. Not only was his army routed but he himself was mortally wounded (1755).

586. **The Fall of Quebec.**— But in 1758 the superiority of the English began to make itself felt. The elder Pitt, one of the greatest English statesman, was then at the head of affairs and none knew better than he how to select capable officers. General Wolfe in 1758 was sent out as commander of the English army. His presence was signalized by the capture of the important fortress of Quebec.

Another English general called Amherst, succeeded in taking the important forts at Niagara and Ticonderoga. From all these different places, the English armies converged upon the city of Montreal and took it after a short siege. With the seizure of the great part of the enemy's stronghold, the English quickly completed the conquest of Canada.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. Born 1708; died 1778. Prime Minister of England 1783 to 1801, and from 1804 to 1808.

587. **Affairs in India.**— We must now consider the colonial rivalry between the English and the French in quite another part of the world. Up to within a few years of this time, India had been ruled by a succession of emperors belonging to the Mogul dynasty. The founder of this dynasty was popularly supposed to be Baber, a potentate who flourished in the sixteenth century, but Baber himself claimed descent from Timour the Tartar who lived in the fourteenth century.

The centralized rule of the Great Moguls as the English called them, had now began to decline. The different princes of the provinces were asserting their own local independence,

and the authority of the emperor was almost as shadowy and unsubstantial as that of the later Carolingian monarchs.

Besides these internal elements of disintegration, there were also foreign trading settlements chiefly along the coast line of the empire. On the western coast, the Portuguese had established the colony of Goa; on the eastern coast, the French had established themselves at Hoogli and at Pondicherry; finally, the English were in possession of the village of Bombay on the extreme northwestern coast, Fort St. George in Madras, and a trading settlement at Calcutta in Bengal on the extreme northeast coast.

The French seem to have made the most progress. The East India Company that had been formed under Richelieu had received especial patronage under Colbert, while Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry, was an able man and full of ambition to promote his country's interests.

588. The Appearance of Robert Clive.— An opportunity soon presented itself in the disputes of the native tribes. The French backed up some of the tribes against the other and by drilling the natives and supplying them with instruments of modern warfare hoped to secure complete ascendancy over India. Such a policy, however, forced the English to take up the cause of the tribes that were attacked by the French. The early point of the campaign went against the English. Their siege of Pondicherry failed and even Trichinopoli in Madras was in imminent danger. But Robert Clive, a dashing young English soldier, saved the situation. He abandoned a purely defensive method of warfare and assumed the aggressive. He took (1751) the city of Arcot in the Carnatic and held it successfully against powerful odds.

Almost at once the French power began to decline. Dupleix had to retire to France in disgrace and the whole of the Carnatic fell under English rule.

589. The Conquest of Bengal.— The next step in the establishment of the English empire in India was the conquest of Bengal. Surajah-Dowlah was then the Nabob of Bengal. He was a man of savage cruelty but it was greed that lead him to attack the English settlement at Fort William (Calcutta) (1756). He succeeded. And in the hour of his triumph one hundred and forty-six prisoners were confined in a small room only twenty feet square and with only two small gratings for ventilation. For only one night were the prisoners immersed in this den, but the heat of an Indian summer did its work and on the morning only twenty-three persons had survived.

Robert Clive. Born 1725; died 1774.

This massacre roused Clive to put forth his best energies. He marched into the heart of Bengal and inflicted upon the enemy an overwhelming defeat at the battle of Plassey (1757). This victory placed the English in possession of Bengal and it, together with the victory at Wondernash in southern India by Colonel Coote practically determined that the English and not the French were to be the rulers of India.

590. The Treaty of Paris (1763) put an end both to the Seven Years' War on the Continent and to the colonial war

between the English and the French. The terms of the treaty were as follows:

(a) In America, England obtained Canada and Cape Breton and was confirmed in the possession of Nova Scotia, while the Mississippi was to be the boundary between the English colonies and Louisiana. In the West Indies, a mutual interchange of territories took place between England and France. In India, England was obliged to restore her conquests since 1749, but obtained the concession that the French troops should evacuate India and that there should be no French fortifications. England also obtained Senegal in western Africa, and the Island of Minorca in the Mediterranean.

(b) Spain also entered into this treaty. She obtained Havana from England but in return gave to England the possession of Florida.

Though this treaty profoundly disappointed the war party in England, it marked the foundation of the great British colonial empire of to-day. England had succeeded in a task in which other nations of Europe had failed or at least had fallen short of achievement. Spain had failed through want of sufficient revenue and the weakening and deterioration of the government at home; France had failed because she treated her colonies as purely political appendages and had allowed the local officials too little liberty of action. But England had succeeded because she allowed full liberty of action to wisely chosen officials and generals, and more than all, through her justice and fair play toward the natives, and through her fearless and dogged perseverance which overcame all obstacles.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Causes of the Seven Years' War — Frederick II takes the aggressive — Battles of Kolin, Rossback, Leuthen, Zorndorf — Russia withdraws from the war — Treaty of Paris — Greater Europe — English possessions in 1713 — War in Canada between

English and French — English success in Canada — War between English and French in India — The Great Moguls — European settlements in India — Success of the English under Clive — English conquest of Bengal — Treaty of Paris.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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CHAPTER XXVIII

THE RISE OF RUSSIA AND THE PARTITION OF POLAND

591. **Ivan IV; the Romanoffs.**— Already, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth of England, Russia had shown signs of rising from the sleep of barbaric ages. Ivan IV was then ruler. During his reign a code of laws was promulgated and a regular army was formed. Communication was also opened up between Russia and the western world. English ships now made their appearance in the port of Archangel and Russia warred, though unsuccessfully, with Sweden and Poland for the possession of Livonia on the Baltic coast.

In 1613, Michael Romanoff ascended the throne and founded the dynasty named after him. From this time, Russia begins to take her place among the European states. Not only did trade with England and France undergo great developments but foreigners began to settle in Russia disseminating a knowledge of western ideas and principles.

592. **Peter the Great.**— The most distinguished member of the Romanoff dynasty was Peter the Great, who ascended the throne in 1689.

A painter would have great difficulty in making a portrait of Peter the Great. He was a man of violent and extraordinary contrasts. He was half a savage and yet he had an extraordinary leaning towards the best and highest forms of western civilization.

Perhaps the most singular feature about Peter was his mental and moral isolation in his own kingdom. He was centuries ahead of the thought and temperament of his own. times.

If we judge him by comparison with the people he governed, Peter must be considered one of the most creative characters that the world has seen. His powers of assimilation and construction were elastic, his genius profound and original, and above all, his resolution unshaken and undomitable. The reforms that were thrust upon Russia during the reign of Peter were as yet far too sudden for its willing acceptance, but the iron will of Peter ruthlessly dragged the whole nation after him and made it walk in the way of the western nations.

Peter the Great. Born 1672; died 1725.

In some respects the progress of Russia under Peter may be compared to the progress of Japan at the present day. But it must be remembered that in Japan the change has been gradual, whereas in Russia it was violent and abrupt.

593. **Peter's Travels in Europe.**— When a boy, Peter determined to make himself acquainted by travel and experience with European civilization. This resolution marked the character of the man. For travel was considered by the Russians of those times as a crime.

Between 1697 and 1698 Peter traveled over the greater part of Europe. He spent the most time in England and Holland. There, he made himself thoroughly acquainted with the principles of science and of art. But his main interest seems to have been ship-building. In Holland, he put on working man's clothes and worked in a ship-yard near Amsterdam.

In England also he worked in the dock-yards at Depford. Most of our information of Peter's sojourn in England is derived from the English newspapers of that period, from which it appears that he made a good impression on all with whom he came in contact.

After two years residence among western peoples, Peter returned, fully equipped for his arduous task.

594. **Peter's Reforms in Russia.**— He at once attempted to introduce into Russia western ideas and customs. The old fashioned oriental robe was now got rid of and even the long beard began to disappear. To the Russians the habit of smoking had always been an abomination but now the long pipe actually made its appearance in the precincts of a Russian court.

Before Peter's time women had been kept in absolute seclusion and never allowed to appear in public save with a long veil over the face, while the two sexes even at the court were never supposed to meet together in social assemblies. But now all this was done away with and the Russian woman began to assume the status of her western neighbor.

To abolish successfully deeply rooted habits of fashion is in itself a most heroic achievement; after this, therefore, we need not wonder if Peter succeeded in things still more important. Knowledge, art, and culture were introduced. Printing presses were set up in different parts of the empire, and libraries established. The Russian library is an anomaly even to this day. Nearly every village has its own library and classical works can be obtained at a reasonable cost. Peter also established the first newspaper in Russia and even planned a learned academy.

Peter also changed the social divisions of Russia. In his Table of Ranks he classed all the people according to their different occupations. The rank of the nobleman was now made

to depend not upon mere blood but upon service of distinction rendered to the state by the person himself or by one of his ancestors.

595. **Changes in the Church.**— Peter even made a radical change in the condition of the Russian church. In this he was aided by Feofan, who though not an orthodox Catholic had been educated in a Jesuit college. Peter strongly disliked the subordinate position that he occupied in the Russian church. He determined therefore to reverse the position and to make the Russian church subordinate to himself. A synod for ecclesiastical affairs was erected and the highest office of this was the procurator who was directly nominated by the emperor.

596. **Administrative Reforms.**— Finally certain political changes were made that facilitated the expansion of imperial authority throughout the domains. Hitherto the only other element in the central administration of the state was the council of boyars who were the highest class of Russian officials. These were now allowed to die out and in their place was established a senate composed of ministers of the emperor's choice.

From this it will be easily seen that the aim of Peter was to introduce not only western usages, but also the elements of western royal despotism. We may now consider the foreign policy of Peter.

The great city of St. Petersburg founded by him as the new capital of Russia sufficiently illustrates the great purpose of his life. Situated at the mouth of the Neva, and near the coast, it was to be the open entrance through which Russia was to assert her influence in the theater of European politics. To obtain this object his purpose was to make Russia one of the Baltic powers.

597. War With Sweden.— It was this ambition that brought him into collision with Sweden. The king of Sweden at this time was Charles XII, a young man of considerable military ability. Charles was still in possession of the districts along the south shore of the Baltic and it was these very lands that were the object of Peter's desire. At the battle of Narwa (1700), the Swedes and the Russians crossed arms. The well-fed and well-disciplined Swedes quickly defeated the ill-disciplined and half-famished Russians. Peter the Great was compelled to retire.

The method of his retirement however signally illustrates what has always been up to now the characteristic trait of Russian policy. Instead of abandoning his design, Peter only waited.

Had Charles XII of Sweden followed up his victory by an advance upon Russia matters might have been more serious. But Charles chose instead to invade Poland and this gave Peter time to recover from defeat and to form a stronger and better disciplined army.

598. Charles XII Invades Russia.— A few years afterwards, Charles XII in the height of his glory entered with an invading army into the very heart of Russia. Peter adopted the same plan of defense that was used a hundred years later against the French. He avoided for the present a pitched battle but harassed the enemy by cutting down bridges, obstructing the fords and especially by wasting the country and so cutting off the enemy's supplies. At length amid most unfavorable circumstances for the Swedes, was fought in 1709 the battle of Pultowa. The results of the battle were the rapid decline of Sweden from her accidental position as a great northern power, and the rapid ascendency of Russia.

599. Treaty of Nystadt.— The war still lingered on and was not really terminated until the celebrated Treaty of Ny-

stadt (1721). By this treaty Peter obtained the Baltic provinces of Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, which thus made Russia what she wanted to be, the prominent power on the Baltic. After this, Peter exchanged his title of czar for emperor and autocrat of all the Russias — a title which only lately has been abrogated by the new constitutional government given to Russia.

Peter the Great died shortly after this treaty. He will always be remembered for the reforms that he effected in Russia and for having made Russia one of the great European powers.

600. **Catharine II.**— His work was continued and perhaps still more effectively by Catherine II (1762). She organized the political system, improved the condition of the serfs, and promoted education by establishing everywhere colleges and schools of a high order. She held intimate communications with the most learned men of Europe; whose services she used for the good of the empire. Especially famous was her correspondence with Voltaire, the great French philosopher.

She also promoted the interests of trade. Many canals were constructed, among them being one that connected the Caspian with the White Sea. Under her auspices also numerous towns, banks, docks, and arsenals were brought into existence. Catherine succeeded in expanding the Russian territory. Her conquest of Crimea in the south gave Russia complete control over the Black Sea. But the most important acquisition was the large share that she obtained in the division of Poland.

601. **Condition of Poland.**— Poland by this time had fallen into a very precarious condition. Its government was in a state of chronic anarchy. The nobles could impose any conditions upon the king of their choice while the power of the assembly was nullified by the absurd provision that the veto

of any single nobleman could invalidate its decisions. There was also anarchy from the religious point of view. For there were constant troubles between the ascendant Catholics and the Dissenters who in the western districts were Protestants, and in the East, members of the Greek Church.

Together with this tempting weakness of Poland there were reasons that made the possession of some of the Polish territories particularly desirable to other European nations. Russia found that the possession of Polish territories in the East would considerably strengthen her frontier. Prussia was naturally aspiring to the western part of Poland, which would give her complete control of the Vistula; Austria's desire for the Southern provinces of Poland followed from the necessity of having a set-off against Russian advances in case any partition of Poland were made.

602. **First Partition of Poland.**— All these circumstances combined to bring about the first partition of Poland in 1772. Russia took part of Lithuania, Prussia took the province called West Prussia, Austria occupied Polish territory in the south including Red Russia.

603. **Second Partition.**— About two-thirds of Poland still remained but even now there still continued the old system of strife and anarchy, and the consequence was the second partition of Poland in 1793. This time Austria had no share of the spoils. But Russia and Prussia added considerably to what they had already acquired, Russia acquiring the whole of Lithuania, while Prussia obtained the important towns of Posen, Gnesen and Danzig. It was on the occasion of this second partition that the Polish patriot, Kosciusko, tried to lead the Poles against the Russians. But he was defeated and taken prisoner. His memory will be interesting to Americans since he fought on their side during the revolutionary wars.

604. Third Partition of Poland.— In 1795 there took place the third and final partition of Poland. On this occasion, Russia, Prussia, and Austria shared in the spoils. Russia and Prussia each extended their possessions till they met and took in what had hitherto been left of Poland, while Austria obtained Gallicia, this time as a counterbalance to the growing power of Prussia.

605. Present Condition of Poland.— Poland had thus ceased to exist as a separate nation. But she died a hard death. Even at the present day both Russia and Germany are endeavoring to crush out the old national spirit in their Polish dominions. But their attempts seem unavailing, and the Poles still successfully maintain their racial identity, their religious traditions, and even their language.

However, the possession of the Polish provinces enabled Russia to interfere still more effectively in the affairs of Europe. And as we shall see in treating of the wars of Napoleon, they enabled Russia to play an important part first on the side of and then against Napoleon. More than this Russia's successful acquisitions had given her a tradition of territorial expansion from which she had never departed until her humiliating defeat in the far East at the hands of the rising power of Japan.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Ivan I and beginnings of Russian trade — Michael Romanoff — Character of Peter the Great — Peter's reforms in Russia — His patronage of letters — Changes made in the political status of the Russian church — The Boyars replaced by the Senate — Peter's foreign policy — Wars between Russia and Sweden — Charles XII's invasion of Russia — Treaty of Nystadt — Catharine II — Catharine II's foreign policy — Condition of Poland — Causes of the general desire to partition Poland — First Partition of Poland — Second Partition of Poland — Third Partition of Poland — Present condition of the Polish Provinces.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

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CHAPTER XXIX

ERA OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Causes of the French Revolution

606. **Revolutionary Theories.**— We have seen how England victoriously held the first place in the great colonial movements of the sixteenth century. It was England's privilege to lead the way in other and still more important movements. Already, in the reign of Charles II of England some philosophers like Hobbes broached the doctrine of the social contract in which they affirmed that society is the result of an artificial contract between the rulers and the governed. The natural consequences of this doctrine were inevitable and immediate. The rulers of the state would derive authority only from the consent of the people and these same people, when convenient could dethrone those whom they have placed in power.

Such doctrines did not perish in the air. Like seeds, they were wafted over to the countries of Europe. There they slowly spread and after sinking right down to the lowest strata of society brought forth tangible results of the most momentous character. All during the thrilling horrors and excitement of French Revolution, nothing can be more illustrative of the power of abstract philosophical ideas than the way in which all branches of society discussed these difficult doctrines of the social compact and its consequences.

607. **French Political Philosophers.**— In France the doctrines were destined to produce more violent and more far-reaching effects than in any other country. The French

writers who were mainly instrumental in presenting these doctrines to the people were Voltaire, Rousseau, and Montesquieu.

Voltaire's system of philosophy was essentially destructive. He opposed to tradition the force of human reason. The most hallowed beliefs and the most sacred institutions were not safe from his critical mind and his power of ridicule. The theory of Voltaire was purely destructive; but he was too much a frequenter of aristocratic society, too much of a diner-out to be dangerous. In fact the friendship of Voltaire with the despot Frederick II of Prussia shows that his revolutionary tendencies were purely in the field of academic discussion.

Voltaire.

Rousseau, on the other hand, was more uncompromising and more inclined to push principles to their practical and logical conclusion. At the same time, he was more conservative and more constructive in his method.

Montesquieu was a great student of the liberty enjoyed under the constitutional monarchy of England. Although he misunderstood in some respect the working of the English constitution, his writings called attention both in France and in America to the most important principles that underlie good government. It is through Montesquieu that America and some European states have imitated in their constitution the English parliamentary system.

608. **Political causes of the Revolution.**— There were three estates in France, the clergy, the nobility, and the third estate, which comprised all that did not belong to the two upper estates. The whole monopoly of power and privilege was lodged with the upper estates.

In medieval times, the lord or the baron, while receiving the feudal dues from his tenants at least did something in return. He performed a great part of the administrative and judicial work of the district in which he lived. But now he had become an idle drone, still receiving, but doing nothing in return.

Moreover, these nobles had no longer the grand old traditions of the ancient feudal aristocracy. Many of them were mere upstarts who had all the pride and arrogance of a noble without any glorious family tradition and ennobling influence.

It was the intendants or local officials who now handled the executive machinery. These intendants were so many despots. Under their rule the people had no initiative whatever.

609. **The Parlements** in France were quite unlike the English parliament. They were merely law courts. The Parlement of Paris in a formal capacity did exercise some political influence. The king's edicts in order to be valid had to be registered by the Parlement. If Parlement refused, then the king could appear in person and the Parlement would be obliged to register his edict even against its own will.

It is true that the Parlement was thus helpless in the king's hands. But the attitude of Parlement provoked discussion and aroused that public opinion which was so important an element in the Revolution.

610. **Other elements** also roused the third estate to the consciousness of their exclusion from power and of their be-

ing at the mercy of the king and the intendants. These stimulants were the salons or drawing rooms of Paris, the cafés where men would discuss the questions of the hour, the newspapers that at first indirectly, then openly organized and made public opinion.

We might sum up the political causes of the Revolution by saying that they were, first, the exclusion of the Third Estate from all political power, and, secondly, the growing consciousness of that exclusion.

611. **Economic Causes of the Revolution.**— At the time of Louis XIV, the economic system of what was called the mercantile school of economists had been adopted. This system meant heavy duties on all imported goods in order to give a better home market to the native producer; it meant encouraging native industries by such artificial means as bounties and monopolies, and it involved a system of continual state interference with trade. At first, this system was successful, but afterward bad results flowed from it. Trade was prevented from following its natural laws and much distress was occasioned. A new school of economists soon rose whose tenets were quite opposed to those of the school represented by Colbert. The chief exponents of this new school were such men as Turgot and Necker in France and Adam Smith in England. These writers advocated a system of *laissez-faire*, which means that the king should not interfere with the natural course of trade and business. The motto of these men was *free trade,* and unlike the mercantilists they regarded agriculture as the producer of wealth.

This school of economists evidently was opposed to the personal despotism of the king.

Economic views though apparently of an abstract nature had a very real interest for the people on account of the bad economic condition of the country.

612. **Internal Trade.**— In spite of the centralized power of the king, France at that time could hardly be considered a single state. Each of the provinces of France had its own code of laws. And what perhaps was worse, each province was commercially cut off from the rest. There was thus no free trade even inside the kingdom itself. Merchandise passing from one province to another had to pay duty. This of course meant not only a loss to buyer and seller but also the expense of maintaining a large body of customs officials.

613. **Taxation Laws.**— Besides being subjected to all these restrictions on trade the working people were ground down by heavy taxation. There was direct taxation levied upon the person who is supposed to bear the burden and there was indirect taxation levied upon persons who are supposed to indemnify themselves at the expense of others. In France the chief direct taxes were the taille and the corvée. The taille was a tax levied upon a district which was assessed according to its supposed wealth, and the corvée was compulsory labor upon the people for the repairing and construction of roads. Of the indirect taxes, the most burdensome of all was the gabelle, or tax on salt. The tax in itself was a serious burden and was made still more so by its inequality, some districts having to pay thirty times as much as others. Similar taxes were levied on many other objects of merchandise such as flour, candles, etc.

614. **Inequality of Taxation.**— Another very aggravating circumstance was that the clergy and the nobility were exempted from paying the taille and corvée. Thus, the main burden fell upon those who were the chief producers of the material wealth of the country.

Besides taxation, the French serf had also to pay heavy feudal dues to his lord. For example, the serf had to help

in the harvest field and to grind corn at his lord's mill. And the lord as we have said did nothing in return, but like the absentee Irish landlord spent most of his time and money in the capital. However, from this point of view the condition of the serf was not so bad as in certain other countries. In Prussia, for example, the peasant had to work on his lord's estate three whole days in the week.

We might sum up the economic causes of the Revolution by saying that they were, (a) Economic principles of liberalizing tendencies, (b) bad economic administration, (c) excessive taxation combined with the obnoxious burdens of the old feudal system.

615. **Religious Causes of the Revolution.**— The great wealth of the clergy, which had contributed to the Reformation in England, was also a prominent factor in the French Revolution. No less than one-fifth of the entire revenues of the state went into the pockets of the clergy, and at the same time they failed to pay their just share of the taxes. Their enormous wealth therefore paid nothing to the state.

616. **Misuse of the Wealth of the Church.**— Moreover, there were great abuses in the administration of the wealth of the Church. Sums of money that had been left for charitable purposes were not always wisely applied. No less than seventy per cent. of the monasteries were commendams, that is to say, their revenues were administered by persons not spiritually qualified.

Above all, there was the enormous disproportion between the salaries of the upper and of the lower clergy. The upper clergy absorbed no less than five-sixths of the entire ecclesiastical revenues, while the lower clergy who did the work and who were spiritually the fittest, lived on a bare subsist-

617. **The Spirit of Irreligion.**— Besides the enormous wealth of the Church badly administered there was the widespread spirit of irreligion and scepticism. The most frightful immorality had prevailed in the court of Louis XV. and in all classes of society there was a fearful gap between the profession of faith and its practice. By degrees faith itself became somewhat weakened, and the outward ceremonies of religion became too often reduced to a mere mockery.

Even amongst ecclesiastics of high rank there were grave abuses. Cardinals, and bishops managed to insinuate themselves into the court and into high offices, and their last thoughts were of the flocks committed to their charge. Types of such men were Cardinal Rohan, and Talleyrand the bishop of Autun.

Yet there were some, who, like the pious Labat and the famous orator Neuville, bewailed the evils of the times, and strove to counteract the effects of the rationalistic writings of such men as Rousseau and pointed out the danger that menaced throne and altar. Among the ranks of the lower clergy especially, were many men leading pious and zealous lives, who strove to bring up their people in the principles of religion.

Eve of the Revolution

618. **Reforms under Louis XVI.**— France was in this condition of misery and discontent when Louis XVI. ascended the throne (1774). Louis XVI. was a better man than his predecessor. He was upright in character and wished to redress the crying evils of the nation, but he was destitute of genius and wanting in resolution.

619. **Turgot** was his minister, an honest man and an ardent exponent of the economic views of the new school. Under his administration attempts were made to lessen the most

grievous of the economic evils. Taxes were equalized and feudal exactions abolished, a uniform code of civil law was established and the criminal code was greatly improved.

Unfortunately, these and other salutary reforms were stoutly opposed by the privileged classes. So great was the opposition that Louis gave way and Turgot went into retirement.

620. **Necker** then became minister. He was a Genevese banker, and was well acquainted with the principles of finance.

He had need of all his ability. The treasury had fallen into a calamitous condition, and just at this time France though a monarchy, declared war against England in support of the revolting American colonies. Fresh supplies of money were therefore urgently needed both to meet ordinary wants and to cope with the additional expense entailed by the war.

Necker continued some of the reforms of Turgot by making a more equitable assessment of the taxes and by practicing the strictest economy. His reputation as a banker gave him credit and he was able to borrow money at a low rate of interest.

The later reforms of Necker, however, drew upon him the same unpopularity that visited his predecessor. Especially distasteful to the official classes was his doing away with the system of farming out taxes as also was his attempt to transfer to provincial representative assemblies functions hitherto exercised by the intendants.

621. **Calonne.**— In 1781, took place the downfall of Necker. He was succeeded for a short time by Calonne, under whose extravagant administration and want of ability the kingdom was reduced to the very verge of bankruptcy.

At last, the king in despair turned again to Necker (1788), and Necker's first advice was to assemble together the States-General.

622. **Meeting of the States-General.**— When the States-General met, certain very important points of procedure had to be settled. Hitherto, the three orders of the Clergy, the Nobility, and the Third Estate had met separately for purposes of discussion, and the votes were taken by order. This meant that the will of the two upper orders must always necessarily prevail over that of the Third Estate. To this the members of the Third Estate strongly objected. They invited the Clergy and Nobles to assist in the common deliberations and insisted that the votes should be counted by heads. The great majority of the two upper Estates refused these demands, but some of the lower clergy consented and joined the Third Estate.

623. **The Third Estate Supreme.**— On the 17th day of June, the Third Estate at the suggestion of the Abbe Siéyes assumed the name of national assembly and began to legislate in complete disregard of the other two Estates. This was the first step that could be called distinctly revolutionary. It implied a complete upsetting of the old constitution and now there took place in rapid succession the several acts of that terrible drama that ended in the execution of Louis XVI, the Reign of Terror, and the formation of the French Republic.

The Revolution

624. **The National Assembly.**—France from this moment passes under various forms of government which succeeded one another in a natural order and with very close connection.

The National Assembly that had been once merely the Third Estate began in 1789 and ended in 1791. During this period, it prepared a new constitution. In 1791, the National Assembly having then completed its work resigned and gave place to the Legislative Assembly, the governing body of the

new constitution. The king was still recognized as a limited monarch. In 1792, it was decided to set up a republic. So the Legislative Assembly gave place to a Convention of delegates elected by the people in order to frame a new system of government. In 1793, the Convention was found to be a slow and unwieldy body for the business that had to be done, so a Committee of Public Safety was formed, which monopolized all the practical work of government until 1795. The Convention and the Committee of Public Safety then dissolved and the constitution of the year III remained in force till 1799. At this date, France practically ceases to be a republic and is in effect an empire ruled by Napoleon.

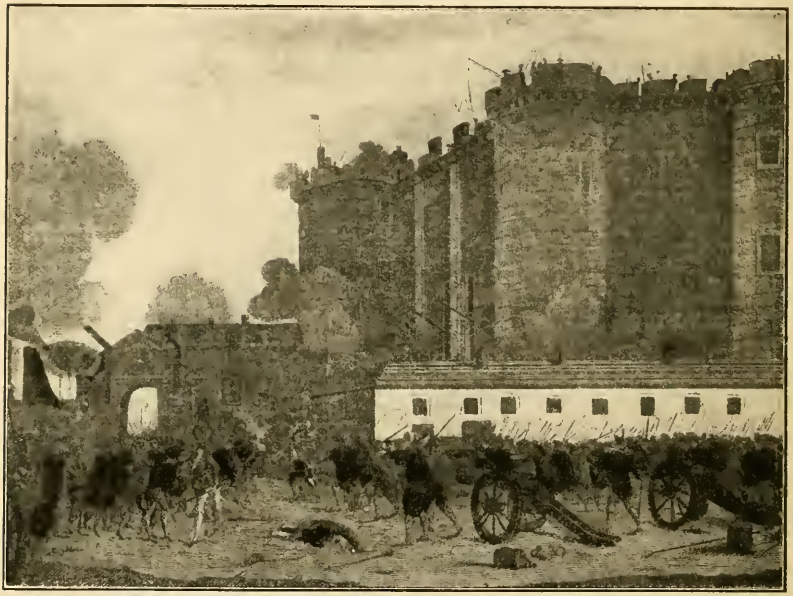
We will now consider briefly the progress of events under these successive phases of government.

The National Assembly (1789–1791)

625. Fall of the Bastile.— When the central government of the kingdom had thus undergone an alteration by the revolutionary act of the Third Estate, Paris soon began to follow the example. The ancient fortress of the Bastile, the symbol and monument of the old despotism was taken by storm and its prisoners released.

Shortly after this, a new municipal government was formed in Paris. This consisted of a mayor chosen from among the ranks of the National Assembly, and a city council consisting of members of the middle class, such as the bankers, merchants, and members of the lay profession. The first step taken by this Commune as it was called, was to organize a city militia for the preservation of order in the city. It was called the National Guard, and was an armed force at the disposal of the revolutionary leaders. It may be compared perhaps with the parliamentary Trained Bands of London at the time of Charles I.

626. **Reforms of the National Assembly.**—News of the events in Paris soon spread throughout the country and caused violent agitation. So serious were the disorders that arose that the National Assembly had to issue a series of reforms. All the old feudal dues and corvées were abolished, the guilds and exclusive corporations in the town were dissolved, payment of taxes was made obligatory on all, and offices and



The fall of the Bastile.

dignitaries were declared open to all without distinction. In order to complete the work of Turgot in bringing France together, the Assembly also did away with the old provinces and divided the kingdom anew into artificial divisions called Departments which were to have one common law and one common system of taxation.

627. **The Royal Family Brought to Paris.**— These reforms, however, like the free constitution granted by the Czar

to the Russian people failed to pacify. Insurrections broke out. A mob of several thousand went to the palace of Versailles, and brought with them to Paris the king, the queen and the dauphin.

The removal of the king to the capital occasioned also a similar step on the part of the National Assembly. This also moved to Paris and held its meetings in a riding school near the Tuileries.

That the government was now acting under the influence of the most violent and extreme of the Paris politicians, events soon made clear.

628. **The Assignats.**— The Church became the object of the most violent attacks. Already, the tithes had been abolished and now the whole of the property of the Church was confiscated and placed at the disposal of the state. Strange to say, it was Talleyrand, one of the indifferent French bishops, who proposed this act of robbery.

However, the sale of the church property was very slow and did not realize enough, so a new expedient had to be devised. A number of bills, called assignats, was issued, on the security of church property, that is to say, the holders of these bills were to receive their face value when the church property ultimately came to be sold.

This expedient ended disastrously. The assignats were issued in too great a number and the public saw that they were backed up by insufficient security. The result was that the assignats soon became almost worthless and great distress was caused.

629. **The Civil Constitution of the Clergy.**— Not only was the property of the Church thus attacked by the revolutionists, but even its very organization was tampered with. The old bishoprics were done away with, and their place was taken by

new bishoprics exactly coterminous with the eighty-three departments into which France had been divided. It was also enacted that the bishops should be nominated by the department electoral assemblies, and that the pope's confirmation of the bishop should be entirely dispensed with.

These enactments constituted what was called the civil constitution of the clergy. All bishops and clergy who refused to take an oath to be faithful to this law were to be prosecuted and as time went on the penalties on conviction were continually increased. Those who took the oath were called jurors, those who refused to do so for religious or other reasons were called non-jurors.

It was clearly the intention of the revolutionary leaders to de-catholicize France. And fresh evidence of this was soon forthcoming. The old church of St. Genevieve was turned into a burial place and here were placed the remains of such anti-religious writers as Voltaire and Rousseau.

630. **Flight of the Nobles.**— It soon became evident that the nobles also, who formed the second of the two upper Estates, would be subjected to rough treatment. Accordingly many of them, including the Count of Artois, the king's youngest brother, crossed the Rhine into Germany. There they set up a little court of their own, contemptible for its frivolities and dangerous on account of its insolence.

But even at this juncture there was still some hope of salvation for the old monarchy. The excesses of the extreme revolutionists, and especially their ill-treatment of the clergy had provoked a reaction. Within the ranks of the National Assembly there had been formed a party opposed to extreme measures and inclined to uphold the cause of a limited monarchy. The leader of this party was the Count Mirabeau, a powerful orator and endowed with the highest qualities of statesmanship.

631. **A New Constitution.**— Mirabeau advised the king to leave the capital and to arm the provinces against the extremists in the capital. But just at this moment Mirabeau died. The king instead of seeking to place himself at the head of the provinces, tried to leave the kingdom altogether to join a foreign army against France. He fled in disguise, but was detected by the post-master at Varennes, arrested, and brought back to Paris.

The king's attempt aroused the wildest indignation, and now the National Assembly brought forward the new constitution which it had been preparing during the last two years.

The main elements of the constitution were, (a) a central government to consist of the king and a Legislative Assembly elected every two years; (b) France to be divided into departments, the departments into districts (arrondissements), and these again into towns and villages (communes). All these units of local government were to be governed by their own elected councils.

The king by this constitution had very little power. The Legislative Assembly had control of national affairs. The councils of the departments of the districts and of the communes enjoyed a great deal of local authority.

The king signed his name to the new constitution and with this begins a new period.

The Legislative Assembly (1791–1792)

632. **The Revolutionary Clubs.**— The arrest of the king had caused a revulsion of feeling against him. At the same time the revolutionary clubs assumed greater importance and more than counteracted any restraining influence that might still exist in the Assembly as a whole. The chief of these clubs were those of the Jacobins and the Girondists. The Jacobins desired a republic by any means fair or foul, while

the Girondists though wishing for a republic only desired to obtain it by constitutional and moderate means. Naturally, the Jacobins being the more violent and assertive had the greater share of influence.

635. **Foreign Interference.**— Together with these internal influences, most serious complications were brought about by the action of the foreign powers. These were bitterly indignant at the ill-treatment meted out to their brother sovereign and they naturally feared the evil effects of the example upon their own states. In 1791, the Emperor Leopold of Austria issued the Declaration of Pillnitz which declared that he and the king of Prussia would join the other European powers in an attempt "to set up a form of government more in harmony with the rights of sovereigns and with the welfare of the French nation."

Soon after this, Leopold died and was succeeded by Francis II whose policy was still more aggressive. War became inevitable and its approach was being continually hastened by the imprudent conduct of the emigrant nobles across the Rhine.

634. **War With Austria.**— At the outset, the war went against the French forces. Not only were they unsuccessful in an invasion of the Austrian Netherlands but foreign troops were actually at the very frontiers of France. The growing danger maddened the Parisian populace. They invaded the Tuileries and subjected the king to the grossest indignities. But this was only the prelude to something still worse for now the last vestige of the old monarchical constitution was overturned. The Legislative Assembly deliberated with the Commune of Paris and decided to remove the king altogether from the constitution. In accordance with this decision they resolved that the people should be invited to elect members of

a convention that should draw up a scheme of republican government. This was accordingly done and so in 1792 we enter upon the third period.

The Convention (1792–1793)

635. **The Republic Established.**— The first act of the new Convention was to declare the fact of the French Republic. Nor was there a single dissentient voice. The constitutionalists had already disappeared, and in their place were only two parties, namely the Girondists who wished for a Republic but by constitutional means, and the Mountain that consisted of the most extreme Republicans.

Three men in the Convention now rapidly came to the front and asserted a strong influence in the direction of affairs. These men were Danton, Marat, and Robespierre.

Danton was a man of tall, majestic presence with a voice like thunder and an eloquence like a mighty torrent. But he was ambitious, greedy, and revengeful.

Marat was a demagogue of the furious type. He was not altogether wanting in ability, but he was swayed entirely by violent emotions.

Robespierre on the other hand was a ruffian of a different type. He was cool, cunning, cautious, and reserved. His clearness of views and a certain latent reserve of power more than compensated for the meanness and insignificance of his personal appearance. But a considerable amount of low malice prevents him from being considered a great man.

636. **Execution of the King.**— A keen discussion was raised as to what should be done with the deposed king. There seems to have been three different opinions. Some thought that the king's life should be spared, others that the king should at least be given the benefit of a trial, and others

again maintained that the king should be forthwith executed as a public enemy. It was finally decided that Louis should be allowed a trial and the benefit of counsel. After a long debate, he was adjudged guilty and condemned to the guillotine. Six days afterwards the sentence was carried out. Louis met his fate with the same patience and fortitude that had characterized the end of Charles I (1749).

637. **Insurrections in France.**— The Mountain had thus asserted its supremacy in the Convention, and before long, with the aid of the Paris mob, they expelled the Girondists altogether. But these high-handed proceedings did not pass unchallenged. Insurrections broke out in the provinces, and even the great cities of Marseilles, Bordeaux, and Lyons took part. Especially serious was the revolt of the peasantry in the department of La Vendée. But the armies of the Republic were successful and more than all, the Convention had adopted the expedient of entrusting the defence of the government and of the nation to a small picked body of men of great sagacity and entrusted with great power. This small executive body was called the

Committee of Public Safety

638. **Success of the Army.**— It not only dealt in a vigorous and efficient way with the insurrections at home but it also warded off the terrors of foreign invasion. An immense army was raised by a universal conscription and able generals like Carnot, Jourdan, and Hoche were placed in command. Two Austrian armies were beaten in succession and jealousy between the Austrians and Prussians completed what the French armies were unable to accomplish.

639. **The Reign of Terror.**— But these successes were marred by the despotic cruelty of the government. It was

now that begins what is justly called the Reign of Terror. A revolutionary tribunal was set up and in the course of four months alone, no fewer than six hundred victims fell under its bloodthirsty functions. Among the victims were the queen Marie Antoinette and such distinguished persons as the Duke Philip of Orleans, Madam Roland, and Barnave, the eminent lawyer and jurist.

640. **Treaty of Basel.**— Towards the close of the administration of the Committee of Public Safety, France had achieved glorious success abroad. Holland was completely defeated and made into a republic called the Batavian Republic. Prussia lost all command of the west bank of the Rhine, and the Austrians were ignominiously driven back to their own country. The success of the French was finally sealed by the Treaty of Basel (1795). The terms of this Treaty were, (a) that France should retain her conquests on the west bank of the Rhine on condition of ceding some territory on the right bank; (b) France was to keep possession of St. Domingo from Spain; (c) France had to recognize the neutrality of the Northern States of Germany as the allies of Prussia.

641. **The Ability of the Committee.**— Whatever may be said of the cruelty of the Committee of Public Safety and of the Convention that called it into being, there was at least power, and power is sometimes better for a state than feeble goodness.

Besides power, there was also displayed a considerable talent of organization. The intellectual welfare of the nation was provided for by bettering the whole system of education through the erection of such establishments as the Normal School, the Polytechnic School of France, the Conservatory of France, the Institute of France, and the National Library.

Social order and commerce were promoted by a still further advance in the unification of the civil code and by the adoption of the metric system of weights and measures. Even the flower of philanthropy could blossom amid the horrors of the Reign of Terror as was shown in the improved condition of hospitals and prisons.

But the main work of the Convention was supposed to be a construction of some form of Republican government and by October, 1795, this task was definitely accomplished.

The new constitution was composed of a directory of five persons who were to be the executive, and an upper chamber consisting of 250 members over forty years of age, and a lower chamber of 500 members over thirty years of age. We now enter upon the period of

The Directory (1795–1799)

642. **Rise of Napoleon.**— We have said already that France has made peace with Prussia and Spain, but she was still at war with Austria, England, and Sardinia. At this date Napoleon Bonaparte began to display his genius.

This young officer was by birth an Italian rather than a Frenchman. He was already ten years of age when he was taken by his father from Italy to France, and he could speak French only imperfectly. He was educated first at the military school of Brienne and afterwards in Paris. His skill and bravery in an attack on Toulon had already raised him to the notice of the government.

643. **War with Austria.**— When the Directory assumed office, young Napoleon was entrusted with an important share in the military operations in Europe. While the generals Moreau and Jourdan led two large armies against Germany, Bonaparte was entrusted with a third army for the purpose of

driving the Austrians out of Italy. Napoleon on this occasion displayed his genius for extraordinary rapid movements. He and his army crossed the Alps even before the snow was yet melted. By this move, he thus separated the Sardinian and the Austrian armies, beat them both in succession and made himself complete master of the Austrian provinces in Italy.

While this was going on, the other two French generals had been sadly worsted in Germany. So, Bonaparte again with lightning rapidity crossed the Eastern Alps and by threatening Vienna forced the Emperor of Austria to conclude an armistice.

644. **By the Treaty of Campo Formio (1797)** France received from Austria the Belgian provinces, the Ionian islands, the recognition of the Cisalpine Republic in Northern Italy, and the acceptance of the Rhine as the Eastern frontier of France. Austria, on the other hand, received as compensation, the Venetian dominions that had been taken by Napoleon.

Fresh victories crowned Bonaparte with new laurels. He was quick to perceive that his most dangerous foe was England, whose position and policy had always made her the upholder of the balance of power in Europe. He resolved therefore to attack England in her eastern possessions. He sailed to Egypt and in 1798 gained the Battle of the Pyramids.

645. **Battle of the Nile.—** But here Bonaparte was destined to receive his first check. The French fleet was beaten and destroyed by the English admiral Nelson in the bay of Abukir at the mouth of the Nile (1799). Though Bonaparte succeeded afterwards in taking Gaza and Jaffa, he was foiled again at the siege of Acre. Bitterly disappointed, he returned home.

646. **Work of the Directory.**— During Bonaparte's absence in Egypt, the Directory had not been idle. It had set up the Helvetic Republic in Switzerland, driven the pope from his temporal possessions, forming out of them the Tiberine Republic and finally it had expelled the king of Naples, forming out of his possessions the Parthenopean Republic.

But this work was more brilliant than solid. The Powers of Europe again took to arms. The Republics that had been set up were abolished, and even France herself was once more in danger.

The Directory became very unpopular and Napoleon intending to assume control of affairs himself, speedily brought about its overthrow.

647. **The First Consul.**— In 1799 the Directory was dissolved and Napoleon became First Consul. Nominally there were two other consuls, but he had complete control of the government.

With this step, the Republican form of government came to an end and we enter once more upon a period of personal rule. Napoleon first as consul and then as Emperor wields a power even more despotic than that of Louis XIV.

648. **Revolt of the American Colonies.**— Closely connected with the French Revolution was the separation of the American colonies from England. The successful wars of the colonials against the French had had the effect of breaking down the barriers between the different provinces and of making possible greater unity of action. At the same time, the conduct of the English government had exasperated the colonials to the last degree. George III, the reigning monarch of England, was disposed to assert his royal power to the fullest extent. Prohibition put upon all manufactures, the imposition of grievous taxes, interference with the due procedure of

justice, and the violation of the charters of the colonies — all these and other evils induced them to appeal to arms and to shake off their subjection to England.

649. **Declaration of Independence.**— In 1775, began the American war of independence. The battle of Bunker's Hill was fought in which the English were victorious, and then on the 4th of July (1776), was signed the famous Declaration of Independence.

At first the English were successful. Under Sir William Howe, they won the battle of Brooklyn and captured New York, and after this the English succeeded in taking Philadelphia, the headquarters of the colonial leaders.

But here their success ended. The English general Burgoyne had to capitulate at Saratoga, and later on, Lord Cornwallis had to surrender at Yorktown to the Americans under Washington. This last event ended the war. Not only did the nations of Europe recognize the independence of America, but even King George III himself saw that the contest was hopeless. In 1783, was signed the Treaty of Paris in which England recognized the independence of America.

650. **Career of the Younger Pitt.**— The course of events in England between 1784 and 1801 was directed mainly by the great minister, William Pitt the Younger.

His financial and commercial policy were important. He had read Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations and he was a pronounced free trader. Under his administration, many of the present large manufacturing towns of England began to rise; roads and canals were constructed, and agriculture received a remarkable impulse from the discovery of a new system of farming.

Under Pitt's administration, the political condition of England also underwent a change. The effective support

given to him by the people, a support which enabled him to win over the opposition of Parliament, showed that the people themselves were now taking a more active part in the business of the state. And there was another even still more important change. There began to arise an aristocracy of wealth which formed a preponderating element in English social and political life. And this also was partly the result of Pitt's deliberate policy since he openly bestowed both office and influence upon the wealthy manufacturers of the country.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

English philosophical doctrines of the state find their way into France — Voltaire-Rousseau — Montesquieu — Political causes of the Revolution — The French Parlements — Economic causes of the Revolution — Economic disunion of France — Heavy taxes — Religious causes of the Revolution — Bad administration of Church revenues — Spirit of irreligion — Louis XVI — Turgot — Necker — Calonne — Meeting of the States-General — The National Assembly — Successive forms of Revolutionary government — Fall of the Bastille — The French Commune — Reforms made by the Assembly — Attacks on church property — New bishoprics founded — The civil constitution — Flight of the nobles — The moderate party — The new constitution — Revolutionary clubs — Hostility of Europe — Final overthrow of the monarchy — Declaration of the French republic — Danton — Marat — Robespierre — The King's execution — Opposition of the provinces — Success of the French army — Reign of Terror — Treaty of Basel — Improvements effected by the Committee — Napoleon Bonaparte — Bonaparte in Italy — Treaty of Campo Formio — French fleet destroyed — Work of the Directory — Change in the government — Causes of the revolt of the American colonies — Battle of Bunker's Hill — Treaty of Versailles — Administration of Pitt the Younger.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

Macklehose, *Last days of French Monarchs;* Mrs. Gardiner, *French Revolution;* Cambridge, *Modern History; French Revolution;* Lowell, *Eve of French Revolution;* Taine, *Ancient Regime;* Tocqueville, *The Old Regime and the Revolution;* Morley, *Voltaire;* Morley, *Rousseau,*

Orthez they received crushing defeats, while their defense of the cities of Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajos, and San Sebastian was broken down. At the last the French Eagles were compelled to fall back beyond the snowy peaks of the Pyrenees.

Napoleon was not present himself during the whole of the Spanish campaign. Austria, his first bitter enemy, was again in arms against him. Leaving his generals Massena and Soult to conduct the war in Spain he hastened to France, assembled an army on the Rhine, advanced into Austria and at the battle of Wagram, 6th of July, 1809, Napoleon laid Austria prostrate at his feet. He then turned his arms against the papacy and again invaded Italy.

665. **Attack on the Pope.**— Pope Pius VII had offended him on account of his reluctance to join in the offensive league against England. When the pope refused to expel the English subjects from the papal states, and to prevent English ships from entering the papal harbors, Napoleon roughly replied: "You are sovereign of Rome; I am emperor, my enemies are yours." Napoleon's actions were even rougher than his words. In July, 1809, the papal palace of the Quirinal was stormed, the pope was taken prisoner and eventually removed to Fontainebleau in France, and the "good city of Rome" declared a second city of the empire.

With the captivity of the pope and his enforced residence in France the emperor seemed to have everything at his feet. But from now the hand of destiny seemed turned against the new emperor. Though the pope was at the emperor's mercy, though he had to endure insults and even violence, yet the power of patient suffering was victorious against rampant brutality. In May, 1814, the pope returned to Rome amidst universal rejoicings and the year after received back all his temporal possessions.

We now have to consider the third difficulty in which

Napoleon found himself involved on account of the Berlin decrees.

666. **Invasion of Russia.**— Russia, in spite of its promise, had secretly encouraged the importation into Russia of English goods, and soon there developed a coolness between Napoleon and Alexander that grew into open war. In 1812, Napoleon invaded Russia. The Russian plan of defense was carried out on the same lines as when the Swedes invaded Russia. The country was devastated for miles around, and the French were allowed to enter far into the heart of Russia far away from the base of supplies. The French capture of the city of Moscow became a mere empty exploit, void of any material advantage, and Napoleon and his army had to retreat to France, amid the ice and snow of a severe Russian winter. The loss of men during this campaign was enormous, but the loss of prestige in Europe had the most serious effects.

667. **Battle of Leipsic.**— Austria and Prussia again took courage and joined Russia against the common oppressor, and in 1813 was fought the battle of Leipsic. The Allies vastly superior in numbers easily overcame the French, of whom 25,000 were obliged to surrender as prisoners of war. This Battle of the Nations as it is called was even more disastrous than the retreat from Moscow. The French army became demoralized, Germany and Holland rose in revolt, and more serious still, a profound dissatisfaction in France began to make itself visible.

668. **Paris Taken.**— When Napoleon returned to France, the legislative body showed signs of independence, and the whole nation seemed tired and wearied of the struggle. It became difficult either to collect taxes or to find conscripts for the army. And now the allied armies were fast closing in

upon France. In vain for two whole months did Napoleon display all his genius for rapid marches and unheard of combinations, now flying at one invading army, now at another. The odds against him were overwhelming, and in March, 1814, the armies of the allies entered and occupied Paris.

Napoleon was forced to abdicate but was allowed to retire to the Isle of Elba over which he was allowed absolute sovereignty together with a revenue of six millions of francs. His place in France was taken by Louis XVIII, younger brother of Louis XVI.

Napoleon spent just ten months on the Island of Elba. During most of the time he was maturing plans for his restoration to power. For his chances were still great. He could rely upon the old soldiers whom he had led from victory to victory, upon the office holders, displaced by the Bourbon dynasty, and most of all upon his still powerful relatives.

669. **Waterloo.**— The Congress of Vienna was still settling the affairs of Europe when the news was brought that Napoleon had returned to France.

The allies again had to take to arms, and in June, 1815, was fought the decisive battle of Waterloo near Brussels. At first the battle was between the French and the English. Napoleon's soldiers made charge after charge. But the superb British infantry held their ground firmly. At length towards the end of the battle the Prussians under Blücher arrived and quickly the whole French army was put to flight.

The battle of Waterloo closed the long succession of Napoleonic wars. Napoleon was exiled to the Isle of St. Helena, while the powers were able to continue the important negotiations that led up to the Treaty of Vienna.

670. **Second Vienna Congress.**— The question that caused the greatest difficulty in the Congress of Vienna was the dis-

posal of Poland and Saxony. Regarding Poland, the greatest efforts were made by Russia to obtain the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. But Prussia naturally demanded that some compensation should be made her for such a surrender of territory, though it had been gained by the previous partitions of Poland. It was proposed therefore that Saxony should be handed over to Prussia who would therefore gain in the west what it had lost in the east.

But even this arrangement met with great opposition. In fact, both Austria and England viewed with dislike any aggrandizement of Russia and they were equally opposed to the injury that would be inflicted on the king of Saxony.

After much discussion, a further compromise was effected. The Duchy of Warsaw with the exception of certain provinces and districts was allowed to go to Russia, but not the whole of Saxony was handed over to Prussia — only a portion of it which went by the name of the Duchy of Saxony, the other portion of Saxony, including Dresden, the capital, remained with the king, Augustus.

The other provisions of the Treaty were as follows:

(a) Holland and Netherlands were erected into one kingdom under the house of Nassau.

(b) The integrity of the Swiss Confederation was recognized.

(c) The king of Sardinia received the Duchy of Genoa in addition to his territories of 1792.

(d) In Germany, Austria was enriched with the Venetian and Lombardian provinces; Hanover was erected into a kingdom and enlarged in size, Prussia obtained in addition a portion of Saxony, certain districts on the left bank of the Rhine, and also recovered Swedish Pomerania. The old imperial supremacy of Austria was done away with, and its place was taken by a confederation of the separate states of Germany.

(e) In Italy, Ferdinand IV, king of the two Sicilies, received back the kingdom of Naples, and the pope was restored to the whole of his papal states.

(f) England acquired Malta, the Ionian Islands, Cape Colony and Ceylon.

671. **Results of the Napoleonic Wars.**— It was evident that a great deal of this arbitrary division of territories must needs be ephemeral. Yet, the Napoleonic wars did produce some very lasting and important results on the after-history of Europe.

First of all, the way was being prepared for German unity. A great number of the lesser states had been abolished, and now there were only about forty. Austria whose prestige had always enabled it to assume whatever leadership was possible in Germany was now weakened and evidently disabled from a duty she was unable to perform. Prussia, on the other hand, owing to the social and economic reforms that had been brought about indirectly by the wars was now admirably fitted to perform the all important task of bringing about and heading a united Germany.

In Italy the way had been prepared for future unity. The violence that had been done to the old territorial divisions and the temporary coalescence of territories into large groups broke down the barriers of isolation and raised aspirations towards a United Italy.

Throughout all Europe, the effects of the Napoleonic wars were seen in a general reaction in the direction of monarchy and conservatism. In some states, even the privileges of the nobles and the old feudal burdens were restored. But the reaction was but slight, and the fundamental principles of the Revolution, although apparently in suspension for half a century, still continued to mould the political destiny of the nations of Europe.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Napoleon's active foreign policy — Battle of Marengo — Treaty of Luneville — The constitution drawn up by Lieyes — Napoleon's religious reforms — The code Napoleon — Napoleon crowned emperor — Material reforms — Napoleon in Austria — Treaty of Pressburg — Battle of Trafalgar — Napoleon wars in Prussia — Napoleon beats Prussia — Berlin decrees and Treaty of Tilsit — Results of the Berlin decrees — War in Spain — War in Austria — Napoleon's attack on the Papacy — Napoleon's invasion of Russia — Battle of Leipsic — Discontent of France — Napoleon's exile at Elba — Battle of Waterloo — Congress of Vienna — Results of the Congress of Vienna.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

FOURNIER, *Life of Napoleon;* TAINE, *Modern Regime;* THIERS, *History of the Consulate and of the Empire;* SEELEY, *History of Napoleon;* ROPES, *Napoleon;* LANFREY, *History of Napoleon;* ANDREWS, *Historical development of Europe;* SOUTHEY, *Life of Nelson;* CREASY, *Decisive Battles of the World;* WOOD, *Cavalry in Waterloo;* CAMBRIDGE, *Modern History, Napoleon;* COLONEL FURSE, *Marengo, Hohenlinden;* FURSE, *100 Years Ago; Battles on Land and Sea;* ULM, *Austerlitz;* PASCAL, *History of the French Army;* DU PRADT, *Les Quatres concordats.*

CHAPTER XXXI

THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY AND OF ITALY

672. **Progress of German Union.**— The unification of Germany began with the Napoleonic wars and the congress of Vienna. The removal of a great number of the lesser states, the formation of such large groups as the kingdom of Westphalia, and the German Confederation, the weakening of Austria, now unfit for the leadership of Germany, the strengthening of Prussia, and finally, the formation of one common German interest and patriotism — all these were already paving the way to a future German Empire.

Even the weakness of the German Confederation that was formed at the Congress of Vienna, indirectly helped to the same end. Both from the legislative and from the executive point of view, this Confederation was thoroughly inept. The Federal Diet was reduced to a state of nullity by the absurd provision that all measures of great importance must be passed by a unanimous vote. Even if such measures were passed, there was no practical machinery for carrying them out. Besides this political lifelessness, the separate German states were reduced to about the same state of commercial isolation as the French provinces before the Revolution.

673. **The Customs Union.**— But in 1828, there appeared an important movement that portended future results even still more important. This was a movement in the direction of German commercial unity. A Customs Union was formed by which it was agreed that free trade should be established among all the German states. Henceforth, merchandise could pass from one German state to another free of duty.

674. William I and Bismarck.— It was not, however, until 1861 that there took place anything decisive in the direction of German political unity. In this year William I ascended the Prussian throne, and one of his first acts was to call to his side as minister Otto Bismarck, the real originator of German unity, and as he has been called rightly "a man of blood and iron."

Prince Bismarck. Born 1815; died 1898.

Bismarck saw that before Germany unity could be accomplished the important question would have first to be settled as to who should be the organizer and leader of the unity. The answer could only be either Austria or Prussia. Theory and tradition were certainly on the side of Austria. At the congress of Vienna, there were German statesmen who implored Francis to resume the office and dignity of Otto the Great. But Bismarck was determined that in fact, Prussia and not Austria, should be the leader, and that the first preliminary step must be to weaken still further the power of Austria.

Already there were circumstances that favored his design. Prussia was the first military state in Germany. By a universal system of conscription she had become one huge fighting machine. Besides this inherent fighting strength a considerable party in nearly all the German states wished to accept Prussia as the natural leader. This was the party of the

liberal reformers. They perceived that Austria would be most unlikely to carry out their ideas, since by so doing Austria owing to its many racial elements would at once lose its homogeneity and even its identity. Prussia, on the other hand, could have no such repugnance to constitutional reforms. Her race people were practically homogeneous with the exception of her recently acquired Polish dominions.

In 1847 an opportunity occurred for Bismark to make war upon Austria.

675. **The Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein** though inhabited mainly by Germans, had for centuries been under the rule of Denmark. They were not, however, an integral part of the Danish kingdom and were allowed a considerable amount of local government. When Frederick VII of Denmark died without male heirs, the Germans claimed that the duchies should be absorbed by German Confederation. To this the new king of Denmark strongly objected. The question was evidently one that could be decided only by war and Prussia took the lead.

Bismarck invited Austria to co-operate with an army and soon Denmark was forced to give way (1864).

676. **War with Austria.**— It was now that Bismarck found his opportunity for forcing war upon Austria. Bismarck claimed that the duchies should be made dependent upon Prussia. To this Austria objected and a compromise was made by which Prussia should govern Schleswig and Austria should take over Holstein.

In the meantime Bismarck was making preparations for war with Austria. Austria was not blind to what was going on and in self-defense amassed troops for the war that was inevitable. This was construed by Bismarck into an act of war. He declared the German Confederation dissolved and forthwith began hostilities (1866).

The war lasted only six weeks. Nothing could stop the advance of the well armed and well disciplined Prussian troops, and the important battle of Sadowa ended the duel between Prussia and Austria. The supremacy of Prussia was secured and Austria became politically excluded from Germany.

677. **The North-German Confederation.**— Bismarck now proceeded to form a confederation under the leadership of Prussia. He was, however, not strong enough to include in it the middle states south of the river Main. He therefore formed a confederation which consisted of the Protestant Northern states. The president of the Confederation was the king of Prussia and the chief governing body was the Bundesrath and the Reichstag, the Bundesrath consisting of the rulers of the states, each having one vote, and the Reichstag consisting of deputies elected by universal suffrage.

678. **French Influence in the South.**— The great obstacle to the incorporation of the southern states had been France. Even from the time of Richelieu, the Southern German states had been under French influence, and the same interfering policy was pursued by Choiseul and after him by Talleyrand. It was evident that the influence of France was directly opposed to the interests of Prussia. France on the other hand had reason to be alarmed at the prospect of the undoing of her long traditional policy in southern Germany, and also at the prospect of a united Germany under the formidable Hohenzollerns.

The only question that remained was who should incur the odium of starting the war.

679. **The Franco-Prussian War.**— In 1869, the throne of Spain which had become vacant was offered to Leopold, a

member of the Hohenzollern family. Napoleon III saw in this a danger to the balance of power in Europe and a menace to the safety of France who would thus find herself surrounded on both sides by a powerful dynasty whose intentions were doubtful. But the demands of Napoleon were so unreasonable that they gave rise to the general idea that he had wantonly provoked the war.

He insisted not only that Leopold should not accept the offer but also that King William should promise that no Hohenzollern should ever become a candidate for the Spanish throne.

William flatly refused. Then the German newspapers took up the matter and perhaps at the instigation of Bismarck made out that the French ambassador had been grossly insulted.

France declared war, hoping that at the first French victory, the south German states would join her against Prussia. But the Prussian army beat the French almost as easily as it had beaten the Austrians. Metz, the great French fortress in Alsace, was besieged and taken, while at the battle of Sedan (1871) the French were completely routed. Even Paris itself was taken. At length France had to sign the ignominious treaty of Frankfort by which she had to cede Lorraine and Alsace to Germany and also pay a heavy war indemnity.

680. William I Becomes Emperor of Germany.—Napoleon's hope that south German states would join France against Prussia was completely disappointed. Prussia had posed all along as the champion of the German cause and the German States eagerly followed its standard. In January 1871, while the besieging forces were still investing Paris, the policy of Bismarck received in the palace of Versailles its crowning triumph. Within the palace of Versailles, the king of Bavaria at the instigation of Bismarck proposed that William should

be German Emperor. All were unanimous, and thus after centuries of waiting we find Germany at last one united nation.

681. **The German Constitution** assumed the form of an imperial federation. The Prussian king is the hereditary president of this federation. Under him are the Bundesrath or federal council consisting of fifty-six delegates from the different states, and the Reichstag elected by manhood suffrage. The ministry is always appointed by the emperor.

William I, Emperor of Germany. Born 1797; died 1888.

682. **Constitution of Austria.**— Austria now ceased to be a part of Germany. She still retains a considerable element of German population but she now busies herself in extending her influence southward among the Slav states. After the battle of Sadowa there was formed what is called the Dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Both of these kingdoms are ruled by the emperor of Austria, but they have their own independent parliaments. The common affairs of the two kingdoms are transacted by a council of which sixty members are sent from each of the two parliaments.

The Unification of Italy

683. **The Unification of Italy** also began with the Napoleonic wars and the Congress of Vienna. Old barriers were for the time removed, traditions of the past were broken, and more than all, there had been created a wave of intense patriotism and a desire for constitutional liberty. There were also other parallels between the two countries. What Austria had been to Germany that the pope had been to Italy. In the same way as Austria had in the past seemed the only possible fulcrum with which to accomplish German unity, so the popes in previous times had aspired to a united Italy under their leadership. And as Austria had become enfeebled, so also the papal power had already received a shock that made the prospect of the leadership of a united Italy more difficult and remote. And as Prussia had by its brute military strength and by its wonderful intriguing become the new fulcrum of unity, so also Sardinia was now marked out for the task of accomplishing the unity of Italy.

684. **Political Conditions of Italy.**— We have seen that by the Treaty of Vienna, Austria had acquired possession of Venetia and Lombardy. These acquisitions gave her a strong foothold in Italy and enabled her for a time to dominate Italian politics. This she did by upholding against the liberals and radicals the despotic rulers that still reigned in Italy. In the south, there was the Bourbon ruler of Naples and the Sicilies, in the middle of Italy was the pope at the head of his old papal states, and in the north, there were the conservative and absolutists. But within all these dominions there existed a strong liberal party who aspired to a united Italy and constitutional government.

685. **Revolutionary Uprisings** took place all over Italy during the years 1820 and 1821. First, in Naples the Car-

bonari, the name given to the secret society of Italian liberals raised an open insurrection and forced Ferdinand I to grant a free constitution; similar revolts took place in Sardinia; and finally in the papal states the people also rebelled and declared the temporal power of the pope at an end.

686. **Austrian Interference.**— But Austria, in all these instances posed as the champion of the conservative rulers. Her troops marched into Naples and reinstated Ferdinand in his old position of absolute ruler. In Sardinia, Charles Felix who had succeeded Victor Emmanuel, suppressed the uprising by merely threatening to call in the aid of the Austrian army, and naturally the close proximity of Sardinia to Austria gave the threat additional meaning. Finally the Austrian troops advanced to Rome, quelled the insurrection, and secured peaceful election and coronation of the new Pope Pius IX (1846).

687. **Mazzini.**—Still the leaven of the old revolutionary spirit was not entirely crushed out. Mazzini, a Genoese lawyer, and a man of inspiring enthusiasm rapidly organized all the moral and intellectual forces of Italy for a new outbreak. He was a man of philosophical ideas combined with a strong emotional temperament and thus knew how to appeal to the peculiar genius of the Italian people. The older Carbonari were done away with and he formed what was called the Society of Young Italy.

It was during this period that there appeared another chance of the new pope placing himself at the head of a united Italy. Together with the old tradition of leadership that still clung to the papal throne, the numerous reforms made by the pope in the direction of a liberal government seemed likely to place him at the head of the patriotic party throughout all Italy.

688. **The Papal Policy.**— A new council of state was formed consisting of younger prelates, a cardinal of liberal

views was made secretary of state, the laws were revised, and several material and economic improvements were effected. Later, he made even still further concessions. But unfortunately his refusal to declare war against Austria, precluded him from taking any further leadership in the patriotic movement. The radicals in Rome grew violent and Pope Pius found it necessary for the sake of public order to form a stronger ministry under the able and energetic Count Rossi. This only infuriated the radicals still more. In November 1848, Count Rossi was assassinated and shortly afterwards the pope was forced to flee from Rome. He was soon however, restored to the Eternal City by the aid of French troops, and under the state secretaryship of Cardinal Antonelli, still further reforms were carried out in the departments of education, agriculture, and commerce.

689. **Sardinia Takes the Lead.**— But the leadership of Italy of the future now passed to the military state of Sardinia. Charles Albert not only granted, as the pope had done, a liberal constitution, but he gratified the national aspirations by waging war upon Austria. At first, his arms were successful but at the battle of Novara (1849) in Piedmont the Sardinian army was defeated and Charles Albert was forced to resign the crown in favor of Victor Emmanuel II who was destined to achieve Italian unity.

690. **Cavour.**— Emmanuel's minister was Cavour, a violent republican and ardent patriot, but well versed in the intricacies of European politics and diplomacy and a consummate statesman.

He soon came to the conclusion that the unification of Italy could be accomplished only by outside help, and just at the opportune moment for this purpose a European war was just on the point of breaking out.

691. The Crimean war (1855) rose from an attempt of the czar of Russia to assume the protectorate over the Greek subjects of the Sultan. The allied forces of Turkey, France, and Great Britain were ranged against those of Russia. Cavour now offered his assistance to France, partly for the general purpose of asserting a place for Sardinia in European politics, partly through the hope of receiving future assistance from France against Austria.

The offer after some hesitation was accepted, and at the end of the Crimean war, Cavour at the Congress of Paris had the satisfaction of appearing at the board of European plenipotentiaries.

When the congress was over, Cavour devoted all his energy to preparing Sardinia for the great and final struggle against Austria. The army was raised to the best of its fighting powers and an active alliance with France was secured.

Count Cavour.

692. War Between Sardinia and Austria.— In 1859, the blow was struck. Partly by the adroitness of Cavour in warding off any possibility of a compromise between Sardinia and Austria, partly by the shortsightedness of Austria herself, the entire odium of the commencement of hostilities was thrown upon Austria. Her ultimatum that Sardinia should not be represented at a congress which was being held in order to settle the affairs of Italy, and that the Sardinian army

should disband within three days were evidently unreasonable, and Cavour rejoiced because the apparent aggressiveness of Austria would justify France in coming to his assistance.

693. **Magenta and Solferino.**— Sardinia refused to comply. An Austrian army crossed into Italy and at once Napoleon III came to the help of his ally. The French army was well handled by Marshall MacMahon, and the Austrian army was in useless condition. The Austrian army was like the Austrian nation — a composition of different nationalities speaking different languages and dialects. Even the words of command were scarcely understood. It was therefore not surprising that the Austrians were defeated first at the battle of Magenta (June 4, 1859), and then at the battle of Solferino (June 24).

At once, Italy went wild with enthusiasm. Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, all offered the sovereignty of their states to Victor Emmanuel.

694. **Peace of Villafranca.**— But at the moment when Sardinia was about to gather in the full fruits of its victory, Napoleon suddenly concluded with the Austrians the Peace of Villafranca (1859). The terms of the peace were that while Lombardy was to go to Sardinia, Venetia was still to remain in Austrian hands, and that the pope not Sardinia was to be the leader of the federation of the Italian states of Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and the Roman Legations.

But Sardinia had gained a great deal. It had acquired more territory, and greater prestige in Italy.

695. **Garibaldi.**— And now besides Cavour there appeared another patriot on the stage of Italian politics. This was Garibaldi, a former soldier of fortune and once a naturalized American citizen.

MODERN EUROPE
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200 300 400
ICELAND
FAROE IS.
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
HEBRIDES
K. OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
London
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
FRENCH REPUBLIC
Paris
K. OF DENMARK
Berlin
GERMAN EMPIRE
SWISS CONFEDERATION
K. OF PORTUGAL
K. OF SPAIN
Madrid
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
Rome
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SICILY
ALGERIA
MOROCCO
5° Longitude West
0°
5°
10° Longitude East
15°

20° 25° 30° 35° 40° 45° 50° 55° 60° 65° 70° 75°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
WHITE SEA
Ladoga
St. Petersburg
GULF OF FINLAND
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
CENTRAL ASIA
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
SEA OF AZOF
TURKEY
ASIATIC TURKEY
ASIA MINOR
PERSIA
GREECE
K. OF GREECE
PCT. OF BUSSORAH
CYPRUS (Brit.)
CRETE
Moscow
Kazan
Orenburg
Astrakhan
Odessa
Sebastopol
Constantinople
Smyrna
Aleppo
Bagdad
Tiflis
Baku
Teheran
Erzeroum
Trebizond
Angora
Adana
Rhodes
Candia
Cyprus
Beirut
Damascus
Jerusalem

In 1859 Francis II had succeeded his father, Ferdinand, on the throne of the Two Sicilies. Cavour proposed to Francis that he should arm himself against the arch enemy of Italy. But Francis II. clung to the conservative despotic traditions, and preferred to lean upon the Austrian alliance. Cavour's natural desire would have been to coerce his obstinate neighbor but he dare not incur the odium of waging an unprovoked war.

But Garibaldi became the deus ex Machina. He sailed from Genoa (May 14, 1860) with one thousand volunteers, reduced Palermo and Sicily, and entered Naples in triumph.

Pius IX, Pope 1846–1878.

696. Attack on Papal States.— Cavour himself now began to interfere. He found a pretext in the fact that Pius IX had set on foot a crusade for the recovery of the Legations. Cavour now sent an army that defeated the papal general Lamoriciere at Castel Fidardo, while Victor Emmanuel led an army in person to Naples.

At the same time, a popular vote was ordered and Naples, Sicily and the Papal states of Umbria voted almost unanimously for annexation to the Sardinian kingdom.

By this time a real Italian kingdom had been formed, only Venetia and Rome remaining outside. Venetia soon fell into

the hands of Sardinia by a treaty with Prussia which provided that Venetia should be handed over to Sardinia as a reward for her help.

Rome was now the only exception to the complete unification of Italy. As yet, the pope was maintained in possession of the Eternal City by the presence of French troops. But a treaty between Napoleon III and the King of Sardinia stipulated that those troops should be withdrawn. This was accordingly done in 1867. Henceforth the pope had to rely upon his own little army consisting partly of his own subjects, partly of volunteers who came in hundreds from all the different countries of Europe.

But this army could not long hold out and in 1870 an Italian army entered Rome by the Porta Pia. The center of Italian government was transferred from Turin the former capital of the Sardinian kingdom to Rome.

697. **Law of Guarantees.**— Thus ended the temporal power of the popes in Rome. In 1871 a statute called the Law of Guarantees was passed which attempted to effect a compromise between the pope and the Italian government.

(a) The Vatican Palace and grounds were assigned to the pope as his residence and were to be considered as extra-territorial — that is to say as not under the jurisdiction of the Italian government.

(b) A fixed annual salary of over six million dollars was to be paid to the pope.

(c) Finally, the pope was to be free in the exercise of all his spiritual functions.

The pope however has never acquiesced in what he considers to be the unjust robbery of his possessions. He has also claimed that the deprivation of the temporal power is incompatible with the free exercise of his spiritual duties.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Beginnings of German unity — The customs Union — William the First — Policy of Bismarck — Prussia not Austria to be at the head of a united Germany — Prussia and Austria wage war on Denmark — War between Prussia and Austria — Battle of Sadowa — Prussia forms a confederation — Opposition from France — War between France and Germany — Treaty of Frankfort — William becomes Emperor of Germany — Nature of the present German constitution — Austrian dual monarchy — Parallel between the condition of Germany and that of Italy — Austrian intervention in Italy — Mazzini — Liberal policy of Pope Pius IX — Leadership of Italy falls to Sardinia — Cavour — Sardinia engages in the Crimean war — War between Austria and Sardinia — Sardinia beats Austria — Peace of Villafranca — Garibaldi — Garibaldi enters Naples — Formation of United Italy — End of the temporal power of the Popes — Law of Guarantees.

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CHAPTER XXXII

PROGRESS OF ENGLAND

698. Relations with Ireland.— The revolt of the American colonies was not without results on the political relations between England and Ireland.

Ireland had even from the time of the conquests of Henry II. been in a state of discontent. She had never been wholly absorbed into the English political system while to the political antagonism between Englishman and Irishman there was also added the bitterness of religious strife.

The Irish had always remained true to the Catholic faith, and they were also consistently steadfast to the declining cause of the House of Stuart. When James II was exiled, Ireland became the fulcrum by which he hoped to reëstablish his rule in England. But the superior military power and skill of William III won the day, and after that time, Ireland was ground down under the heels of Protestant oppressors.

699. The Penal Laws against Catholics in Ireland were a shame to civilization. No Catholic could sit in Parliament or could hold office; if the son of a Catholic gentleman turned Protestant he could take possession of his father's estate; if a Catholic owned a horse he could be forced to sell it to any Protestant for five pounds. Even his very children did not go unscathed, for they were strictly forbidden to go to any school of their own faith.

700. English Tyranny.— The Irish Catholics however, were not the only people in Ireland who had grievances. The Irish Protestants also complained, though for far lighter

and different reasons. The chief ground of their complaint was that they were debarred from their due share of political power. By the Poyning's act under Henry VIII, no law could be passed in the Irish Parliament without the previous consent of the English Privy Council; on the other hand, the English Parliament could legislate directly for Ireland.

701. **Economic Discontent.**— There was also great discontent arising from economic causes. The cottier system of holding land was then prevalent. By this system, small Irish tenants obtained their holdings by competition, the landlord leasing the farm to the man who was willing to pay the highest rent. Since land was an absolute necessity the consequence was that the tenant often agreed to pay a rent which he was totally incapable of paying. He thus became reduced to a chronic state of distress, while evictions on account of the non-payment of rent became frequent.

702. **The Act of Union.**— Pitt believed that the only efficient remedy for these evils was the union of Ireland with England, and in 1800 an act was passed to this effect. Henceforth, there was to be only one Parliament for England and Ireland, and absolute free trade was established between the two countries, but there was still to be a Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and there was still to be a separate judicial system.

After this, it was not long before the Catholics in Ireland succeeded in obtaining relief from some of their most crying grievances. In 1829 was passed the Catholic Emancipation bill. The passing of the bill was mainly owing to the strenuous agitation of the great Daniel O'Connell, a clever lawyer, a brilliant orator, and endowed with powers of wit that have become proverbial. The opposition was strong; even George IV, who had few scruples about anything, had scruples about this, but the eloquence of O'Connell and the per-

suasions of the Duke of Wellington, then minister, won the day. In 1829 the royal assent was given to the bill. Irish Catholics were now admitted to Parliament and to most of the higher offices, civil and military.

703. **Parliamentary Reform.**— About three years after this, there took place in England a parliamentary reform of a most important character. We have already pointed out that in the fourteenth century Parliament had ceased to represent the nation. The disproportion of representatives sent up by north and south, the non-representation of many cities and boroughs, and more than all the limiting of the franchise to forty-shilling freeholders had been responsible for this. In after years the want of any true coördination between the Parliament and the nation became still more apparent and was productive of evil results. The crown or the dominant political party managed to gain complete control of the elections; not the will of the nation but coercion, corruption, and bribery too often decided the course of legislation.

Daniel O'Connell. Born 1775; died 1847.

The Reform Bill of 1832 removed this abuse. The main provisions of this bill were:

(a) Small and depopulated towns were no longer allowed representation in Parliament, but the new and important towns like Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds were now allowed to send up a due proportion of representatives.

(b) The number of members for Scotland was raised from forty-five to fifty-three, and the number of members for Ireland, from one hundred to one hundred and five.

(c) The right of suffrage was extended in the counties to all freeholders and tenants whose holdings were valued at fifty pounds a year, and in the boroughs, to those whose houses were valued at ten pounds and upwards a year.

Besides these political reforms, there were also economic and educational reforms.

704. **Reform of the Poor Laws.**— The crying grievance at that time was the miserable condition of the poor law in England. Idleness and beggary were rewarded instead of being punished. Even if a man became poor through sheer idleness and vice, he was lodged in a big comfortable house, where he was fed, clothed, and lodged far better than many of those who had to pay ruinous rates for their support. The poor law of 1834 did away with this. It adopted the important principle that the condition of the able-bodied pauper should be made less desirable than that of the lowest wage earner. Henceforth, all able-bodied beggars had to be relieved in the work-house, where they had to perform certain allotted tasks. The result was that fewer people sought relief and the poor rates that had been so high as to threaten the prosperity of the country were speedily reduced. Changes were also made in the administration of the relief. Parishes sent their poor into one common union work-house which was under the management of a board of guardians elected by the people. While a great deal of liberty was allowed to the local units of administration, uniformity in general principles was secured by

entrusting the general supervision of the working of the act to a central body at London.

705. **Educational Reform.**— As regards education, there appeared in 1839 for the first time a system of national education. By this act, all schools in receipt of grants from the government had to submit to government inspection. In 1870, this was supplemented by the erection of board schools throughout the country. These schools were to be supported by the rates from the district in which they were situated and attendance at these board schools was made compulsory. From that time onward, the great bulk of the people were initiated into the mysteries of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in later times the number of subjects taught became quite considerable.

706. **The Universities.**— The state also extended its activity to the centres of higher education. In 1854, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were reformed and brought more into pace with the requirements of modern times. And in accordance with the same spirit the custom was gradually introduced of having several universities instead of only two. Already, in the time of George IV. there was founded the University of London. Then, it was only an examining body, but during the last few years it has been made a teaching body as well. The movement in this direction did not die out and during the past fifty years other universities were erected, such as the Victoria University and the Universities of Birmingham, Sheffield, and Manchester.

Most of these reforms and changes have been carried out during the reign of Victoria.

Though the legal constitutional power of the British sovereign is strictly limited, yet the character and example of Victoria always gave a strong and enduring impetus to every undertaking that went for the general benefit of the nation.

Not only on several urgent occasions did she give important advice to her ministers but her court, for its purity and uprightness became an example to all Europe.

707. **The British Colonial Empire.**— Having considered the internal progress of England, we must now consider her colonial empire, which on account of its vastness, its immense material resources, and prudent administration is the most successful and unique that the world has yet seen.

The most important outlying possessions of England at the present day are Canada, India, Australia, New Zealand, and Africa. All these are allowed practical self-government. But there are certain general ties that unite them to the mother country; the chief of these are the common sentiment of race and tradition. There are also strong commercial ties, since most of the colonial trade is carried on with England, and it is British capital that forms the chief support of most of the industrial enterprises within the colonies. Finally there is a judicial bond of connection since the supreme court of appeal for the colonies is the judicial committee of the Privy Council in England.

708. **Canada.**— When the American colonies revolted from England, Canada remained faithful. Indeed, the Quebec act which allowed them to retain their own law, aristocracy, and religion gave them no excuse for revolt.

Great troubles arose at first from the strife between the French and the English element. The division made by the Constitution Act of 1774 between the English Upper Canada, and the French Lower Canada was certainly ill-advised and it only accentuated the separation between the two races. The folly of this measure however, was partly undone in 1840 by following the suggestion of Lord Durham and uniting Upper and Lower Canada into one province administered by only one parliament.

But it was not until 1867 that all troubles were put an end to by the formation of the Dominion of Canada. This is a federation of the seven provinces, Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, British Columbia, and Prince Edward's Island. The federal government consists of a Governor-General, representing the British king, and a legislature consisting of a Senate and House of Commons. The members of the Senate are appointed by the Governor-General, while the members of the lower house are elected from the several provinces.

709. **India.**— British rule in India was extended by several wars and by rebellions successfully crushed. In 1843 war broke out between the English and the rulers of the Sind in the northwest of India, whereupon this country was annexed to the British Empire by Sir Charles Napier. Similar wars broke out with the Sikhs, a magnificent race of warriors in the Punjab, and these wars also resulted in the annexation of the Punjab. Finally in 1857, there took place the terrible Indian mutiny which by the exertions of such distinguished officers as Sir Henry Lawrence, and Sir Henry Havelock was successfully crushed. On this occasion the Government of India was taken completely out of the hands of the East India Company and transferred to the Queen of England who in 1876 was created Empress of India.

710. **The Government of India** affords an exception to that of the other colonies. The Secretary of State for India assisted by a council of persons who have resided in India, has the supreme control of affairs, and the governor-general of India with his council is allowed very little initiative. Lately, however, owing to excessive home interference this policy has been severely criticized and probably at no distant date the officials in India will be allowed a greater discretion and a wider latitude than they are at present.

It should be borne in mind however that not all India is governed directly by the British government. There are various native states which enjoy a considerable amount of local independence though under English control and supervision.

711. **Australia and New Zealand.**— Between the years 1815 and 1850 there grew up the rich and thriving colonies of Australia and New Zealand. The sheep-runs and the gold mines attracted great crowds of emigrants and the population increased by leaps and bounds. At first, the custom of transporting convicts to Australia was the means of introducing a military system of government. But as the convict system began to die out, a constitutional system of government was introduced. There are five provinces in Australia, namely, Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and West Australia. Each of these is ruled by its own governor and by two chambers. But the federal principle for several years remained extremely weak. Most absurd prejudices existed between the provinces who in commercial matters tried to do one another all the harm they could. By degrees however, the spirit of disunion is being exorcised and the Federal Council of Australia in 1885 and the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901 have tended to bring the provinces together in the closest unity.

At the present day, Australia is perhaps growing faster than any other country in the world. Sydney and Melbourne are large flourishing cities and contain buildings that rival successfully the proudest in Europe or America.

712. **Africa.**— The British possessions in South Africa have of late years attracted considerable attention owing to the Boer war. After the acquisition of Cape Colony by the English, a succession of wars combined with skilful treatment of the conquered natives, to extend British control in

all directions. In 1843, Natal was acquired and made into an English colony. In 1853, the Kaffir wars added a considerable amount of Kaffir land to British territory. In 1879 war was declared against the Zulus, and this resulted in the acquisition of Zululand. Later, large portions of unappropriated African territory were seized and the rights over them handed over to the British South African Company, organized by Cecil Rhodes, and finally, during the last few years the war against the Boers has ended in giving to the English complete control over the important districts of the Transvaal and Orange Free States.

713. **Egypt.**— In connection with the colonies in South Africa, might also be mentioned the British Protectorate of Egypt. This is important not only because it controls the Suez Canal, the direct and shortest route to India, but also because it forms a basis from which to explore central Africa. Probably at no distant date there will be direct railroad communication between northern and southern Africa.

Such, in a few words is an outline of the most important of the British possessions throughout the world. There are of course others of less extent and of minor importance, such as Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus, and the British settlements in China. Altogether, the British possessions cover an area of 11,421,100 square miles and a population of about 400,000,000.

714. **Imperial Federation.**— Of late years, various schemes have been propounded for bringing all these scattered lands together in closer political unity. The most feasible one seems to be that of an internal confederation somewhat resembling in its structure the Constitution of the United States. Each section of the Empire would manage its own home affairs, and all matters affecting the common interest of the whole

empire would be handled and dealt with by an imperial federal council meeting at London. In former times such close political union between such scattered lands would have been impossible but now steam and electricity have considerably done away with the limits of time and space.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Relations between England and Ireland — Catholic Ireland under alien oppressors — Penal laws in Ireland — Grievances of the Irish Protestants — the Cottier system — Union of England and Ireland — Catholics' Emancipation Bill — Parliamentary Reform in England — Introduction of the Modern Poor Law System — Provision for national education — The Universities — England's Colonial Empire — Ties between England and the Colonies — Canada — India — Australia and New Zealand — Africa — Extent and Area of British Colonies — Prospects of an Imperial Colonial Federation.

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CHAPTER XXXIII

DEVELOPMENTS AND PROGRESS IN THE OTHER LEADING STATES OF EUROPE

715. Political Tendencies of the Nineteenth Century.— The revolutionary ideas that had pervaded the thinking classes in Europe, combined with the wars of Napoleon to fill almost every nation with a spirit of feverish unrest. Everywhere could be seen a tendency in the direction of constitutional experiments and everywhere the balance of power tended to shift more and more from the hands of the few into the hands of the many. At the same time the balance of power in Europe had been seriously disturbed. As yet it was hard to ascertain the exact position and drift of political forces and it was only by degrees that nations gradually formed themselves into new and evenly balanced groups and alliances. We will now consider in detail, the corresponding changes that took place in Europe after the eventful overthrow of Napoleon in 1815.

France

716. France Under Louis XVIII.— The Congress of Vienna, which in Sept., 1814, restored the old Bourbon dynasty to France, placed Louis XVIII upon the French throne. The power of the people and the recent terrors of the revolution were still fresh in his mind and the early years of his reign were distinguished for the broad liberality of his administration. The charter which he promulgated allowed some of the main elements of popular government. While the House of Peers was to be filled by the king's choice, there was to be a lower house duly elected by the people, which

was to have complete control over taxation. Such fundamental principles as free speech, religious liberty, and equality before the laws were finally confirmed.

During the latter years of his reign, however, he yielded more and more to the demands of the reactionary conservative party which was rapidly growing in strength. Upon his death in 1824, his brother Charles X succeeded, and threw himself heart and soul into the cause of the conservative party.

717. **Reaction Under Charles X.**— From 1820 to 1830 the work of the revolution was undone piece by piece. The franchise was practically restricted to the wealthy landowners; influential appointments were confined as far as possible to those of conservative tendencies, and Charles formally announced that he regarded the legislature merely as an advisory council. The nation began to raise its voice, and the overwhelming majority of liberals that were returned to the Chamber of Deputies ought to have shown him the danger of his position. But the infatuous monarch disregarded the warning, and by a series of edicts, suspended the constitution.

At once, Paris was in revolt. Once more the barricades were erected in the streets and throngs of armed men shouted, "Down with the Bourbons." A hasty meeting of some of the members of the legislature was held in the Hotel de Ville, and chiefly by the influence of Lafayette, it was decided to offer the throne to Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, who accordingly became king in 1830.

718. **Louis Philippe,** however, was first obliged to accept the charter which had been granted by Louis XVIII, and also some important supplementary laws. The most important changes thus effected were as follows. The clause in the charter concerning the divine right of kings was omitted,

the legislatures were allowed to introduce bills, and the franchise was considerably widened, so as to include all who paid forty dollars annually in taxes.

719. **Conservative Policy.**— But it soon became clear that the democratic impetus given by the revolution would not be satisfied with a constitutional monarchy. Ideas of popular government gained in strength, but during the last eight years of Philip's reign the government was administered by Guizot, who headed the party of resistance to the march of democracy. The most salutary measures of reform were introduced into the Legislatures, only to be rejected one after another by the ministry. Nor was this all. By trying to control the elections, he sought to do away with the representative character of the Lower House. The new elections, so far from showing the mind of the people by an overwhelming liberal majority, returned a majority of conservatives.

Revolutions had become easy by habit. Again the barricades were erected. Again a few members of the legislature met together, and this time appointed a committee called "The Provisional Government," whose duty it was to call into existence a new régime.

720. **Louis Napoleon President.**— After many heated discussions, and perhaps under pressure from the outside mob, the committee abolished the House of Peers, established manhood suffrage, and declared a Republic. Some of the elements of the New Constitution were borrowed from that of the United States. Among the members of the new ministry was Lamartine, the great French poet, who became foreign minister, and at the presidential election, Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, nephew of Napoleon the Great, was chosen president.

Napoleon seems to have had a great deal of the ambition

and versatility in using ways and means that had characterized his illustrious ancestor. Though he had sworn to be faithful to the constitution, he plotted against it from the very beginning. The growing unpopularity of the assembly, and the favor which Napoleon found with the Bourgeoise, were powerful circumstances in his side. Napoleon was also active in his own behalf. He carefully fanned the general hostility against the assembly and placed all the important posts in the army in the hands of his friends and confidants.

721. **Louis Napoleon Becomes Emperor.**— On the night of December the 2d, 1851, the Republican Government was suddenly overturned. The assembly was dispersed and by popular vote, Napoleon was made president for ten years, with dictatorial power. All this, as read in the light of precedent could have but one meaning, and in 1852, Napoleon became Emperor of the French.

We now enter upon the period of the Second Empire, which though less brilliant than the First Empire, closely resembled it in many leading features. Napoleon became the active supreme head of the nation. It was a period of personal rule, during which Napoleon was responsible to no one and every one responsible to him; the legislature and the press were entirely at his service, and for the time, the cause of popular liberty seemed to have been lost. But France had for the time, what she sorely needed — a strong government which secured to her a period of commercial prosperity and of general diffusion of wealth and comfort throughout all classes of the community.

It was the foreign policy of Napoleon that ultimately brought about his downfall.

722. **War with Germany.**— In a previous chapter, it has already been pointed out that the Franco-German war was

forced upon Napoleon III by Bismarck, but that the whole plan was so skilfully arranged that the odium of declaring war was thrust upon France. It is clear, however, that Napoleon thought that France was better prepared for war than Germany, and that a campaign would be easily and quickly won. But there was also the additional reason that Napopeon had discovered, by the returns of the elections that his popularity was waning, and urged on by his wife, he determined to stake all upon the issue of a successful war (1870).

The event did not justify his expectations. The French did not realize that the Germans were determined not on a war of defense but of offense. The surrender of 83,000 men at Sedan, the still more disastrous surrender at Metz, and the capitulation of Paris, place France under the heel of the invader. Napoleon had played his last card and failed. The treaty by which France sacrificed to Germany Alsace and Lorraine, withdrew from Napoleon the last vestige of popularity. A revolutionary form of government was set up and the mob destroyed some of the most notable buildings in Paris. Napoleon was forced to flee. For a time, a provisional government under Thiers, administered the country, but the quarrels among the different party leaders, at length drove him from office. In 1873, the provisonal government came to an end and the Third Republic was set up and is the form of government in France at the present day.

723. **The Third Republic.**— The most conspicuous features of this present French Republic are as follows: (a) A national assembly consisting of two houses, a Senate, and a Chamber of Deputies. The Senators are elected by Electoral Colleges in the different departments and hold office of three years. The deputies are elected by universal suffrage, and in the proportion of one deputy to every 70,000 inhabitants. The two chambers sit apart for ordinary purposes,

but meet together for the revision of the Constitution and for the election of the President, which takes place every seven years. (b) The second element of the present constitution is the President, who as we have said is elected by the chambers in joint session. The President has the power of dissolving the Chamber of Deputies and of returning bills for consideration, but instead of being the master of the Cabinet, is rather its servant. (c) The local government of France underwent no change, and still remains what it was during the First Republic. The chief divisions of local government are the Departments, Arrondissements, Cantons, Communes. These different units enjoy very little local power and are absolutely subordinated to the central government.

This Constitution such as we have briefly outlined, has satisfied the aspirations of France for the last thirty-six years. It has stood successfully very severe tests. The intrigues of the Monarchists and Bonapartists, and for a time, the hostility of the Church, have been against it. Also the educational question and the relations between the government and the Church are problems that still remain to be solved. The late separation between Church and state by the abolition of the Concordat, may have had the effect of alienating from the government, a considerable class of its supporters. But the interests of the different sections hostile to the government are all so divergent that it hardly seems likely that at present, they will coalesce for the purpose of any revolutionary change.

Belgium and Holland

724. **Character of the Two Peoples.**— When Napoleon the Great had received his final overthrow, the Kingdoms of Belgium and Holland were united into one kingdom, under William I, a prince of the House of Orange. The arrangement

was singularly unfortunate. It ignored the tendencies that had been mapped out by past history and by the religion and character of the peoples. The Teutonic character of the Dutch and the Romance tendencies of the Belgians, united with the Protestantism of the northern Provinces and the Catholicism of the southern, to form barriers that were insuperable to any kind of pacific union. Even the occupations of the peoples were different, for while Holland was a trading country, Belgium had been from time immemorial, a manufacturing community.

Nor was any care taken to make the union less odious. William I was exclusively a Dutchman and was not inclined to make any allowance for natural proclivities of his southern subjects. The result was a condition of profound dissatisfaction and a union of the clerical and disaffected political forces which at any moment, might prove most formidable.

725. **Revolution in Belgium.**— The spark was kindled by the revolution that broke out in Paris when Charles X was driven from the throne (1830). At once, Brussels rose in revolt. A provisional government was formed, and for the sake of order, a national guard was placed in charge of the capital. Negotiations were opened with the government of the Netherlands. The Prince of Orange was sent to temporize with the malcontents. Personally, he was disposed to grant concessions of so complete a nature, that all causes of complaint would be removed. Unfortunately the States-General failed to pass the measure.

The Belgians thereupon resorted to force. The Dutch garrisons were expelled and the whole Belgian army was prepared to defend the national cause.

Belgium soon became the center of European politics. Russia was inclined to favor the cause of William, while England, owing to motives of commerce, was more inclined to favor the

independence of Belgium. The other countries of Europe were also interested, partly on account of the danger of the still further spread of revolutionary principles, and partly on account of the danger to the balance of power.

726. **An International Congress** now met at Brussels, and the first result of its deliberations was to acknowledge the independence of Belgium as a separate state. It was then arranged that the government should take the form of a monarchy. But here the question rose as to who should fill the throne. There were many material ties between the French and the Belgians, but the acceptance of the throne by a French king would have been a standing menace to the balance of power, and distasteful to the other powers. The choice of the Belgians eventually fell upon Prince Leopold of Coburg, a prudent and moderate statesman.

The Dutch protested and endeavored to enforce their protest. An invading army penetrated into the country and forced Leopold to fly to Mechlin. But England and France speedily intervened. While an English fleet menaced the coasts of Holland, a French army besieged the town of Antwerp. Immediate danger at home compelled the Dutch army to retire from Belgian territory, and William eventually had to accept the arrangements of the Congress by a definite treaty (1831).

727. **The Belgian Constitution** as set up and as it still remains provides for a limited monarchy. Besides the king, there is a Senate and a Lower House. Both the Senators and Representatives are chosen by the same electors. The Senators are elected for eight years, the representatives for four years. At the elections, the chambers are renewed by one half. Laws may be introduced in either the Upper or the Lower House, but bills for raising money must appear first in the House of Representatives.

The king fills up all the offices, ministerial, civil, and military. He appoints the judge, who cannot be removed except by judgment in open court. The king has also control over the foreign policy of the nation, and he is entrusted with the task of seeing that the laws are properly enforced.

Only one defect in the constitution remained to be corrected and that was the limitation of the franchise. At first, there was a heavy property qualification. This was afterwards removed by a law providing for universal suffrage, with the very useful amendment that additional votes should be given to those possessed of a certain amount of wealth or education.

728. **The Constitution of Holland** still remains what it was in 1815. It is a limited monarchy and presents some points of resemblance to that of Great Britain. There are two legislative chambers, the members of the Upper Chamber being appointed by the king for life, and the members of the Lower Chamber being elected by the assemblies of the provinces. The executive force is placed in the hands of the king, the succession being allowed to go to females only in default of male heirs.

Spain and Portugal

729. **The Bourbon Restoration.**— The overthrow of Napoleon meant the restoration of the Bourbons, not only to the throne of France, but also to that of Spain, in the person of Ferdinand VII. The old Bourbon tendencies speedily showed themselves. The constitution that had been framed in 1812, was swept away and personal rule substituted in its place. He dissolved the Cortes, and abrogated their constitution, established the Inquisition, restored to the nobles all their old privileges, and filled the prisons with patriotic liberals.

730. **Ferdinand VII.**— At the same time, the finances of the country were in a ruinous condition. But instead of di-

recting his time and attention to the true sources of wealth, such as trade and manufactures, Ferdinand squandered large sums of money in seeking to recover the Spanish colonies that had revolted during the Bonapartist regime. Even in this object he failed. His tyrannical instincts alienated still further the colonies, so that by 1823, Buenos Aires, Chili, Peru, Colombia, and Mexico became independent states and were recognized as such by the United States.

At last, the standard of revolt was raised in Spain and the liberal party compelled the king to accept the constitution of 1812. Just, however, when the revolutionary party appeared supreme, France, with the consent of the European powers, intervened and released the king from his captivity by the Cortes and established peace and order.

The remaining years of the reign of Ferdinand were peaceful, and were undisturbed by any question save that of the succession. He had only one child, a daughter, who by the Salic law, was prevented from ascending the throne. Ferdinand tried to solve the difficulty by abolishing the Salic law. To this, Don Carlos, the king's brother and otherwise the next heir, strongly objected. The death of Ferdinand was the signal for strife, and at once the throne was disputed between Isabella, for whom Christina, the queen acted as regent, and Don Carlos. The former was supported by the liberal, and the latter by the conservative or reactionist party.

731. **Party Strife.**— The liberal party triumphed and in 1850, Don Carlos was driven from the country. But peace was not yet. Even during the conflict with Don Carlos, the liberals had been fighting among themselves. The cause of dissension being that Christina had replaced the old constitution by a new one of a more conservative character. In the very year of triumph over the common enemy, Christina was compelled to resign her office of regent in favor of Espartero,

a Progressionist General. His victory, however, was short-lived. When Isabella became of age, Christina returned from exile and the partizans of the conservative constitution now held the reins of power.

The character of Isabella was unfitted for a position where a respectable and commanding character was more than ever necessary. The dissoluteness of her private life, and her strong reactionary tendencies soon provoked a revolution. Isabella was driven from the throne (1868), and an interregnum took place, during which the crown was offered unsuccessfully to various persons. At length, Amadeus, the Italian Duke of Aosta accepted the position. He however was soon glad to resign, and for two years Spain was governed by a republic, with Castelar at the head. Even this experiment proved a failure and as a last measure for the restoration of order, the crown was offered to Alfonso XII. From that time, till the present, the restored monarchy seems to have given reasonable satisfaction, though the prospect of a revolution in behalf of the exiled Carlists is a constant menace to the permanence of the present dynasty.

732. **The Constitution of Spain** consists of a monarch and two chambers, namely, a Senate and Congress. Half of the Senators are elected, the other half are appointed for life; the members of the lower house are elected by universal suffrage.

733. **The History of Portugal,** from 1815, presents during its early stages, a remarkable parallel with that of Spain.

The revolution in Spain which drove out Ferdinand VII produced a similar revolution in Portugal. Owing to the occupation of Portugal by the French, the seat of government was transferred from Portugal to Brazil, which was one of the most important of the Portuguese colonies. It was not

long before the revolutionary movement spread from Portugal to Brazil. This double revolution forced King John to resign the administration of Brazil into the hands of his son Pedro, while he himself returned to Lisbon. Brazil quickly declared its independence of the mother country and Don Pedro was proclaimed emperor.

In the meantime, King John was forced to accept the radical constitution that had been drawn up in 1820, shortly after the revolution in Portugal.

On the death of King John in 1824, the crown was forcibly seized and held by Miguel, the youngest son, for six years. After this, it passed into the hands of the daughter of the emperor, Pedro. This caused a change in Brazil. Then Don Pedro abdicated the throne in favor of his son, Pedro II., while he himself went to Portugal, to act as regent for his daughter. The throne has remained in possession of this dynasty, though up to the middle of the nineteenth century, there was a great deal of internal strife, further complicated by the Carlist risings in Spain.

734. **The Present Constitution of Portugal** provides for an hereditary monarchy with which resides the executive power of government, while the legislative power resides in an Upper and a Lower Chamber. The members of the Upper Chamber take their seats in some cases by appointment in other cases by election, while the deputies of the Lower House are elected by the people. The senators hold office for life, while the deputies vacate their seats every four years.

The Austro-Hungarian Empire

735. **Racial Division.**— The battle of Sadowa (1866), in which the Austrians were so badly beaten by Italy convinced the Austrian emperor, Francis Joseph, of the need of further

consolidating and strengthening his empire. It is necessary to remember that the Austrian empire then comprised, as it does now, many nationalities. But the chief lines of cleavage lie between the Germans in Austria proper, and the inhabitants of Hungary and Bohemia. All efforts to Germanize these provinces had failed; they still hungered for local independence and rejoiced at the humiliation of Austria.

736. **The Dual Monarchy.**— Some change was absolutely necessary. But Francis Joseph, who was true to the old Hapsburg motto of "divide and rule," instead of forming a solidly united nation, created two different centers of gravity in Austria and Hungary. He instituted a dual-monarchy, united together under the one emperor of Austria. Both countries were to have their own parliaments which should deal with local affairs. All foreign, military, and naval affairs were to be dealt with by two delegations, each consisting of sixty members, chosen respectively by the Austrian and Hungarian parliaments. By a curious arrangement, the delegations could not discuss matters viva voce, but were to exchange their views in writing, and even when they did meet, it was to vote only in silence.

In this compact, there is technically speaking no Austria; the words, "Hungary" and "Austria-Hungary," are distinctly stated, but Austria is spoken of as the "Countries represented in the Reichsrath," the Reichsrath consisting of the representatives sitting in the parliament of Vienna having no connection with the Hungarian parliament.

It would be nearer the truth, therefore, to speak of the empire of Hungary, than of the empire of Austria. Indeed, not only is Hungary a definite unit with a living and growing organism of its own, but it is an empire both by the compact that was made by Francis Joseph, and also by the powers that were given to it under Pope Sylvester II.

737. **Forces of Disunion.**— The compromise by which Francis Joseph admitted Hungary into an imperial dual partnership, has proved most detrimental both to the dual-monarchy as a whole and to each of the partners. There is no common center of government, and no force to weld together the conflicting interests of the empire. Instead of imitating the bold policy of the Hohenzollerns, in expanding outward from one common center, Francis Joseph created two different centers with different activities of their own. All the heterogeneous elements in the empire are suffered to exercise their own activity independently of one another. The different languages that are spoken, are in themselves a bar to unity. Even the very army is weakened by the fact that the words of command are not understood by those to whom they are spoken.

At present, the only apparent bond of cohesion seems to be the emperor, who has endeared himself to all. When he vanishes, the Austro-Hungarian empire will most probably undergo disruption. In such a case, the different races composing the empire would naturally be absorbed into those powers with which they have most affinity.

In spite of the present confusion, it must be remembered that both in Austria and in Hungary the principles of representative democratic government have fully asserted themselves. Whatever difficulties there are, arise from the incompatible union of different races and the preservation of customs that tend to perpetuate, rather than soften disunion. The fatal mistake was made when Austria, with her own provinces still disorganized, attempted to play an imperial policy. The result was, that Austria, the weaker portion, has become a mere annex of Hungary, which has all the unity and all the training and institutions but lacks only the machinery of a real empire.

Russia

738. **The Russian Advance in Europe.**— The part that had been taken by Russia in the overthrow of Napoleon, showed that henceforth Russia was going to become an active factor in European politics. As the victory of Peter the Great over Sweden in a war of defence was followed by an active policy in Europe itself, so the success of Czar Alexander at Moscow, was followed by an active propagandist policy in Eastern Europe.

When Alexander died, in 1825, he was succeeded by his younger brother Nicholas. The new emperor, unlike his predecessors, from the time of Peter the Great, was an ardent lover of the old Russian institutions and did his best to shut out all European influences. But, together with this conservative policy at home, Nicholas combined aggressive designs on Turkey for purposes of a self-aggrandizement in the Balkan States. Taking advantage of an insurrection in Turkey, and of the defenceless condition that followed, he forced the Sultan to consent to the independence of Servia, to allow Russia to occupy the fortresses on the east coast of the Black Sea, and to allow Russian ships to enter the waters under the jurisdiction of Turkey.

739. **Revolt of Greece.**— Yet another opportunity for intervention was afforded by the revolt of Greece from Turkey. The Turks, in order to crush the rebellion, began to ravage the Morea of southern Greece. Thereupon, England, France, and Russia, combined their fleets together and at the battle of Navarino, 1827, destroyed the entire Turkish fleet and made the independence of Greece an accomplished fact. A conference in London provided that Greece should be a constitutional monarchy, and offered the crown to Prince Leopold of Saxenburg. The offer was declined and Otto, the younger

son of the king of Bavaria, was placed upon the throne. Otto's excessive German tendencies soon caused a revolution and a new king was elected in the person of Prince George, second son of the king of Denmark. The next event in the reign of Nicholas, was the Polish revolt, 1830. By the Congress of Vienna, Poland had been erected into a kingdom under the Russian Grand Duke Constantine. The constitution was utterly unsuited to the needs of the people and the French Revolution of 1830, caused a similar rising in Poland. The results were disastrous. The Poles, as ever, were divided among themselves, and the advance of the Russian was one long triumphal march. Poland soon became a Russian Province.

740. **The Crimean War.**— The great event in the reign of Nicholas was the Crimean war. This war was the effect of Nicholas's determination to partition Turkey and thus extend Russian influence over the Balkan countries. The immediate cause of the war was, that Nicholas insisted on being the protector of the Greek Christians throughout the Turkish Empire. The claim was refused by the Sultan. Russia then presented an ultimatum and on this being rejected, Russian troops occupied the provinces of Moldavia and of Wallachia as security for the obtainment of their request. This was clearly an act of war. Then the Sultan appealed to France and England and the three powers together now warred on Russia. The league was afterwards joined by Sardinia, anxious to obtain a recognized place among European powers (1853).

The scene of the war was in the Crimea. The main incidents were the battles of Balaklava and Inkermann, at the former of which took place the celebrated charge of the British Light Brigade, so well known from Tennyson's poem. One very important episode was the appearance of the Eng-

lish nurse, Florence Nightingale, who first introduced into warfare the present organized system of nursing that has done so much to assuage the horrors of war.

741. **Treaty of Paris.**— During the war, the emperor Nicholas died. Both sides were now weary of the contest, and in 1859, was signed the Treaty of Paris. The chief terms were as follows: (a) The guarantee of the independence and integrity of Turkey. (b) Moldavia and Wallachia, to be ruled by separate princes elected by the assemblies of the respective countries. (c) The Black Sea was declared neutral. (d) The Sultan was to be the protector of the Christians of the Turkish Empire.

742. **Alexander II.**— The successor of Nicholas was Alexander II. He was a monarch of humane and most liberal tendencies. He not only sought to give Russia a better system of justice and to set on foot some kind of local self-government, but he issued the "Emancipation Code," which gave liberty to forty-six millions of Russian serfs. Till then the Russian serf, like some of the old medieval serfs, was absolutely tied down to the soil, and were obliged to work, not only on the village lands, but also on the lands of their lord.

But the Emancipation Code gave the serfs their freedom and making them legal tenants of the lands which they tilled, declared that the rent could be paid in labor or in money. Even this tenantship might be converted into freehold possession by the payment of a sum of money.

743. **Russo-Turkish War.**— In 1877, war again broke out between Russia and Turkey. Whatever might have been the good intentions of the Sultan, the tyranny of the official oligarchy, who were the rulers, became intolerable. The

Greek Christians rose in revolt, and the Turks retaliated by the notorious Bulgarian atrocities. Not only Russia but the whole of Europe was aflame with indignation. The Russians being allowed a passage through Roumania, entered the provinces under Turkish rule. Plevna was taken and a few days later, the fortress of Kars in Asia, shared the same fate. It is difficult to foresee what might have taken place, had not England interfered, by sending a fleet through the Dardanelles, which stayed the progress of the Russians and brought on negotiations for peace.

744. **Congress of Berlin.**— In 1878, a Congress was held at Berlin which attempted a definite settlement of long standing Eastern question. The independence of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro, was confirmed. Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under the care of Austria. Bulgaria was divided into three parts of which the northern part alone secured complete independence, the middle portion being partly dependent on Turkey and the southern part entirely so. Also, the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles were to be closed to all foreign ships of war — an important proviso in case of any European complications.

745. **Present Condition of Russia.**— The Emperor Alexander was assassinated in March 1881, and was succeeded by Alexander III, after whom came Nicholas II (1894). The reigns of these monarchs have been marked by the advance of liberal principles among the great mass of the Russian people. These principles have been constantly resisted not so much by the obstinacy of the emperors themselves, as by the oligarchy, which while professing to administer in the name of the emperor, control in effect both emperor and people. In very recent times, however, a liberal constitution of a very restricted character has been granted to the Rus-

sian people. But the peasants and the lower classes generally are still very ignorant and the party of reaction is strong. The only saving element seems to be the intellect and the patriotism of the professional classes, and this element will probably become the saving element in Russian politics.

TOPICAL SUMMARY.

Introduction — Reign of Louis XVIII in France — Accession of Charles X — A reaction in direction of conservative monarchism — Revolution in Paris and accession of Philippe, Duke of Orleans — The charter granted by Louis Philippe — Strong democratic movements — Another revolution and establishment of a second republic — The coup d'état and accession of Louis Napoleon as Emperor — Reign of Louis Napoleon — His foreign policy — Defeat of France at the hands of Germany — Overthrow of Louis Napoleon and establishment of the Third Republic — Present Constitution of France — Union of Belgium and Holland under William I — Revolution in Brussels — Belgium becomes the center of European politics — International congress and accession of Leopold I to the Belgian throne — Present constitution of Belgium — Present constitution of Holland — Reign of Ferdinand VII of Spain —Revolt of the Spanish colonies — Question of the Spanish succession — Triumph of the liberal party — Reign of Isabella — Again another revolution — Accession of Alphonsus XII — Present constitution of Spain — Revolution in Portugal — Separation of Brazil from Portugal — Don Pedro Emperor of Brazil — His abdication in favor of his youngest son — Present constitution of Portugal — Racial divisions in Austria-Hungary — Formation of the Dual monarchy under Francis Joseph — Meaning of the Dual Empire — Results of the Dual Empire — Principles of representative government — Russia's policy of expansion inaugurated by Peter the Great — Accession of Nicholas I — His policy at home and abroad — Destruction of Turkey's fleet at the battle of Navarino — Independence of Greece under Prince Otto — Dethronement of Otto followed by accession of Prince George of Denmark — Absorption of Poland by Russia — Crimean war — Treaty of Paris of 1859 — Accession of Alexander II — Reforms of Alexander II — War between Russia and Turkey — Congress of Berlin in 1878 — Accession of Alexander III and present condition of Russia.

GENERAL REFERENCE.

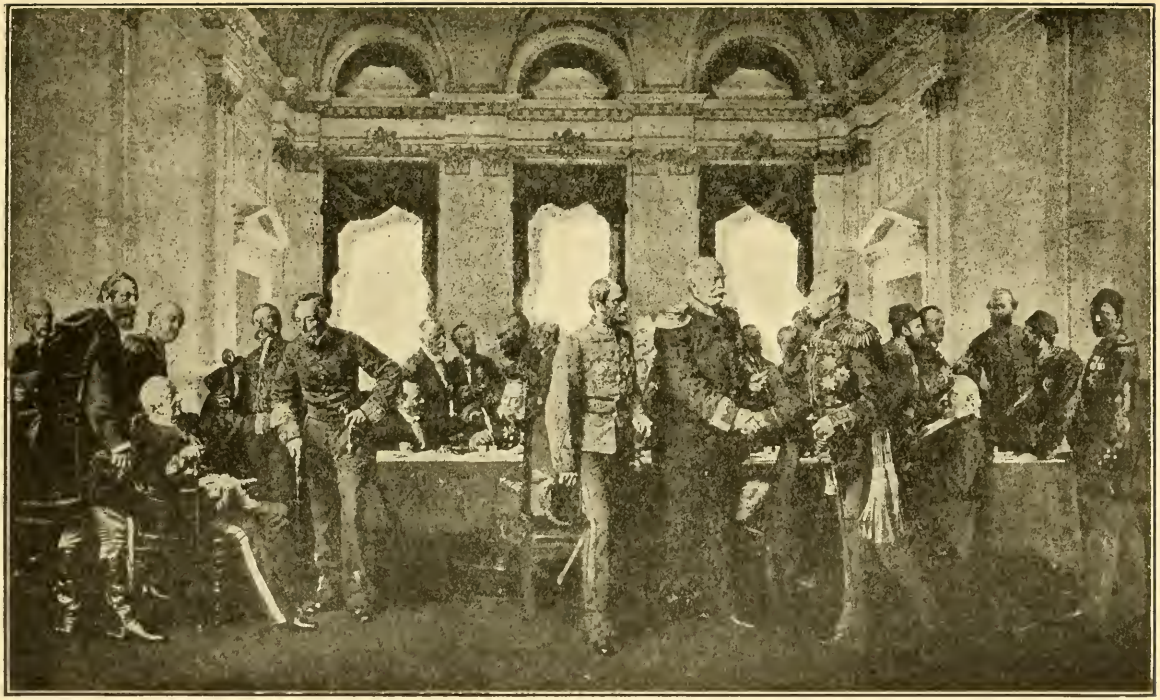
PHILIPS, *Modern Europe;* COMBERTIN, *Evolution of France under the Third Republic;* HANOTAUX, *Contemporary France;* THIERS, *Discours;* LOUIS BLANC, *Organization of Work;* HÉLIE, *Les Constitutions de la France;* CHATEAUBRIAND, *Memoirs;* LEBON, *Modern France;* GAMBETTA, *Correspondence;* JERROLD, *Life of Napoleon III;* ADAMS, *Growth of French Nation;* MURDOCH, *Reconstruction of Europe;* SEIGNOBOS, *Europe since 1814;* LAVELAYE, *Le Parti clerical en Belgigue;* WOERSTE, *Twenty Years of Polemics;* BLOK, *History of the People of the Netherlands;* LOWELL, *Governments and Parties in Continental Europe;* HUME, *Modern Spain;* HANWAY, *Castelar;* LATIMER, *Spain in the 19th century;* HOUGHTON, *Origin of Restoration of the Bourbons in Spain;* PIRALA, *Contemporary Spain;* PRUNEL, *Souvenirs de voyage en Espagne et en Portugal;* STROEBEL, *Spanish Revolution of 1868–1874;* GABRIEL FERRY, *Les Revolutions du Mexique;* SOUTHEY, *History of Brazil;* ANDREWS, *Historical Development of Modern Europe;* LEGER, *History of Austria-Hungary;* SEIGNOBOS, *Europe since 1814;* BEUST, *Memoirs, Correspondence between Grun and Frankl;* MULLER, *Recent Times;* LEROY BEAULIEU, *Awakening of the East;* NOBLE, *Russia and the Russians;* RAMBAUD, *History of Russia;* SKRINE, *Expansion of Russia;* STEPIAK, *Russian Peasants;* HELLUALD, *Russians in Central Asia;* FYFFE, *Europe;* SMITH, *Greece under King George;* MCCARTHY, *History of Our Own Times;* KINGLAKE, *Invasion of the Crimea.*

CHAPTER XXXIV

SOME TYPICAL FEATURES OF THE XIX CENTURY

746. **Political Tendencies.**— Besides the leading political events that have taken place in every country in Europe, there are distinctly visible certain general political tendencies that are independent of any national barriers. During the modern period of history, the isolation that had characterized the medieval state has been gradually diminishing almost to the vanishing point. At the present day, the destiny of a nation must be conjectured, not only by what is in the nation itself, but also from general forces and tendencies that are affecting alike the whole of Europe.

747. **The Principle of Balance of Power** asserted itself even from the descent of Charles VIII into Italy; it became stronger during the wars of Louis XIV, and at the present day is a dominant factor in European politics. From the Franco-German war up till very recently, the alliances that have constituted the balance of power in Europe are the Triple Alliances and the Dual Alliances. The former is an alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy, and the latter is formed between France and Russia. After the Berlin Congress, Bismarck discovered that his support of certain claims of Austria in the Balkans had deeply offended Russia; he accordingly advised the emperor to form an alliance with Austria, which had already been drawn into the misunderstanding. Italy had a grievance against France and entered the league, thus completing the Triple Alliance. Shortly afterward France and Russia being affected by a common interest and a common danger also entered into partnership and

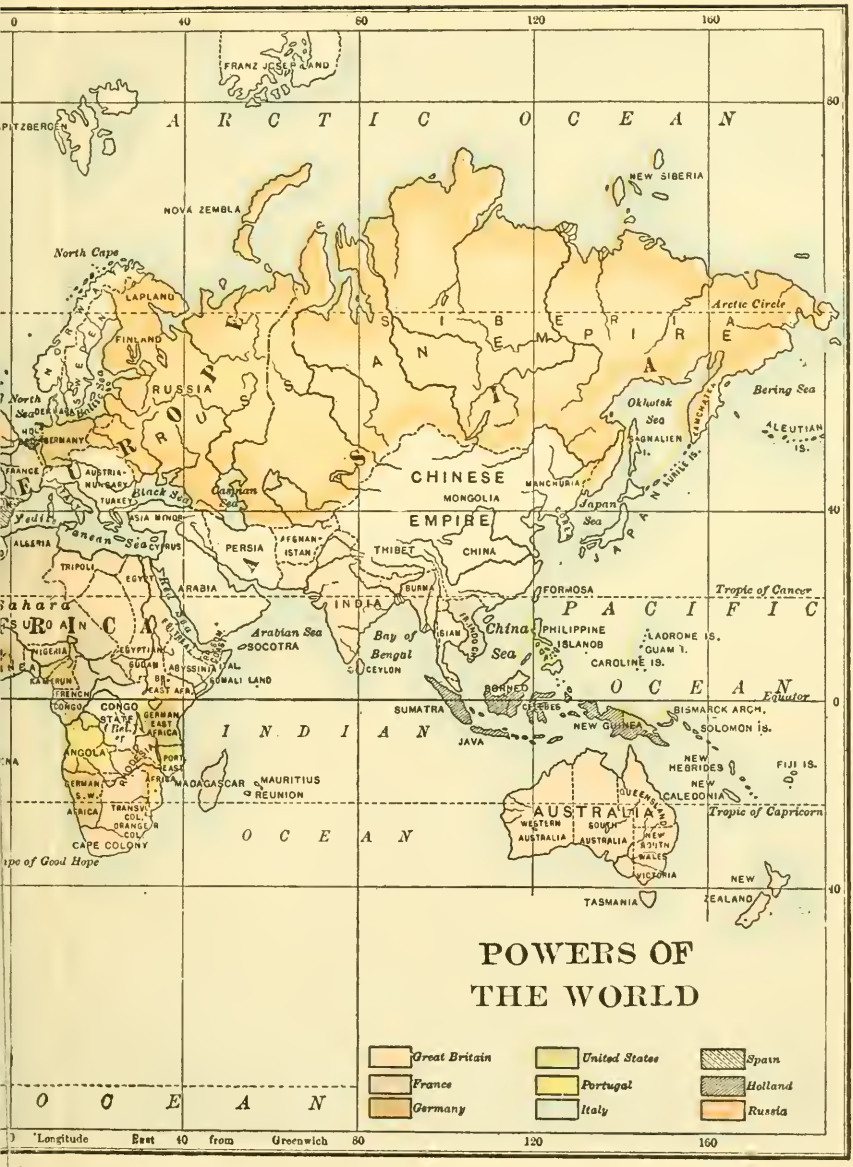


The Berlin Congress.

formed a counterbalancing Dual Alliance. For a time, when England viewed with jealousy the use of French influence in northern Africa and found herself on terms of cordial intimacy with Italy, there seemed a prospect of forming a quadruple alliance. But this did not take place, and England for many years consistently maintained an attitude of isolation, but she has in recent times been closely drawn toward the United States and Japan.

748. **European Colonies.**— Another general factor that has to be reckoned with in European politics is the colonizing activity that has been displayed by the different European countries. Thus, France has acquired in northern Africa, the fertile lands of Algeria and a protectorate over Tunis. She also holds possession of Senegal and the island of Madagascar, and has developed important trade connections in southern China. Germany has also acquired in Africa considerable colonial interests and has established there, important protectorates, most of which are well adapted for European settlements. Still more significant is the success of the German colonial policy in Asia Minor and even in China. The chief elements in the success of Germany seem to have been the activity and shrewdness of her trading agents and the quickness with which she opens up new lines of commerce. Russia again has been constantly expanding, not so much in a westerly, as in an easterly direction. In northern Persia and up till lately in the extreme eastern part of Asia at Port Arthur, Russian influence had been slowly and powerfully asserting itself. And lately in southern Persia she is menacing English interests. Italy also has interests in northern Africa, notably in the Massowah district and in the protectorate of the Somaliland. Even Belgium has acquired in Africa a portion of the Congo district, remarkable for the fertility of its soil. By the Berlin conference, in 1885, this

160
120
80
40
80
ARCTIC OCEAN
Baffin Bay
GREENLAND
Davis Strait
Arctic Circle
ALASKA
DOMINION OF CANADA
NORTH AMERICA
Hudson Bay
LABRADOR
Bering Sea
QUEEN CHARLOTTE IS.
ALEUTIAN IS.
NEWFOUNDLAND
BRITISH ISLES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
UNITED STATES
40
AZORES
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS. (Sp.)
PORTUGAL
BERMUDAS
Tropic of Cancer
HAWAIIAN IS.
Gulf of Mexico
MEXICO
BELIZE
CUBA
JAMAICA
HAITI
WEST INDIES
PORTO RICO
GUADALOUPE
CAPE VERDE IS.
Caribbean Sea
MARTINIQUE
TRINIDAD
CENTRAL AMERICA
VENEZUELA
PANAMA
COLOMBIA
GUIANA
FR.
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
Equator
0
PACIFIC OCEAN
ECUADOR
SOUTH AMERICA
PERU
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
PAR
URUGUAY
SAMOA IS.
ASCENSION
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
ARGEN
FALKLAND IS.
Cape Horn
40
GRAHAM LAND
Antarctic Circle
ANTARCTIC
160
120
Longitude West
40
from Greenwich



POWERS OF THE WORLD

- Great Britain
- France
- Germany
- United States
- Portugal
- Italy
- Spain
- Holland
- Russia

Belgian portion of the Congo district was organized into a Congo kingdom, with Leopold II as sovereign.

All these European expansions are full of deep significance for the future. Perhaps the world will again see the rise of more colonial empires resembling that of the English. But it must be carefully remembered that although many seem to be in the race, there are only a few nations that are possessed of the peculiar qualities necessary for the formation of a great colonial empire.

749. **The Principle of Arbitration.**— Another conspicuous element in international politics is the principle of arbitration. in 1898, at the initiative of the Russian minister for foreign affairs, a general conference was held at the Hague, for the purpose of limiting the excessive armament of the different nations and for the purpose of establishing a permanent tribunal for the peaceful adjudication of disputes. It cannot be said that in practice its success has been very complete. But the attempt marks the growing acceptance of the principle of arbitration, and may be taken as an evident sign of the increased solidarity of the nations of the world.

750. **Economic Changes.**— Besides these political features of the nineteenth century, we must not fail to observe the remarkable progress that has been made in economic and social conditions.

Owing to the increased means of communication after the invention of the railway engines, and the use of steam in propelling ships, the markets of the world have become considerably widened. Merchants have now to consider not only the demands of consumers in their own country, but of those who live in the most distant parts of the world. Together with increased facilities of transportation there are also numerous inventions that multiply indefinitely the production

of goods. The flying shuttle, invented by Kay in 1753, the water-frame by Arkwright in 1767, the spinning jenny by Hargraves in 1770, and the mule by Crompton in 1779, all these have indefinitely increased the speed of the output and have worked a revolution in the world of labor and industrial competition.

751. **The Factory System.**— One of the most important results has been the substitution of the factory system for the domestic system. Hitherto, goods were wrought by single workmen or by small groups of workmen. The goods were hand-made and many of them went through all the different processes of manufacture under the same hands. There was also a close relationship existing between the employer and his men.

All this was changed by the new and powerful inventions that revolutionized the production and transit of goods. The factory system came into existence with its hundreds and its thousands working under a hierarchy of trained officials. The old personal relations between employer and employee could exist no longer; everything had now to be run on the lines of strict business. From henceforth the same piece of goods is under the manipulation not of one man only but of several, each process in the manufacture being carried out in its own special department.

Such a system has its merits and its demerits. It is not nowadays that we find works of art that have the stamp of individual genius. Things made by machinery cannot possibly acquire that finish and that individuality of expression that is the result of one man doing the whole work. But as a compensation, the conveniences of life are multiplied a hundred-fold. With small cost, the average man can command what in former times would have been deemed unattainable luxuries.

752. **Trade Unions.**— The factory system has been followed indirectly by another very great change in the industrial word and that is combinations of labor trade unions. Even before the factory system, there had been combinations of wage earners, but with the new complex system of labor they increased rapidly. The main object of these unions is to obtain fair wages and reasonable hours of work. No doubt, much could be said regarding the rash acts, the unnecessary strikes, and the interference with the rights of non-union laborers. In the main, however, they have done much good. This is especially the case in some countries, where the affairs of the unions are regulated by a central committee of sagacious and experienced men. Hasty and unnecessary strikes are not so likely to occur and there is less opportunity for the display of local passion. It must also be admitted that owing to the unions, wages have been raised and that the laboring classes have acquired greater comfort and leisure.

753. **The Banking System.**— Another consequence of the industrial revolution has been the perfecting of the banking system. Nothing can be done without capital, and it is by means of banks that capital is accumulated and readily distributed where it is immediately required. The Bank of England, founded during the reign of William III, is the most important establishment of its kind in the world. It is the place of deposit not only for individual customers, but also for the provincial banks of England and even for a great part of the European banks. The national banks of other countries hold their capital more evenly distributed and though the risk of insolvency is smaller the capital is not so easily and readily obtained. In America, the two chief classes of banks are the national banks and the state banks; the chief difference between the two consisting in this, that the state banks cannot issue circulating notes.

The banking system plays a most important part in the industrial world. Not only is capital deposited and ready at hand, but it facilitates the exchange of goods and accompanies every movement in manufacture and in trade.

The material well-being of society has been benefited, not only by the industrial revolution, but also by the great strides that have been taken in works of philanthropy.

754. **The Care of its Poor.**— In most countries, the poor are now taken care of in a wise and systematic way. Vagabondage and loafing are sternly repressed; while every help is given to those who are poor through misfortune or accident or old age. In some countries like New Zealand, there had already been started a system of caring for the aged and with conspicuous success. Even such difficult questions as finding work for the unemployed are receiving attention; but in overcrowded places like London, the problem as yet presents insuperable difficulties. Such expedients, however, as emigration and labor colonies tend to mitigate the evils that result from overcrowding and from too keen competition.

755. **Care of Criminals.**— Even the criminal classes are now attracting the benevolent attention of society. The summary executions and brutal methods in vogue some fifty years ago, which only drove to desperation and hardened the criminal, are done away with. There is now some just proportion between the crime and the offence. And not only is the prison regime calculated to reform the prisoner, but when the term of imprisonment is over, there are willing hands who will keep the ex-convict from his former bad surroundings and put him in the way of earning an honest livelihood.

756. **Discoveries in Science and Medicine.**— Much also might be said of the discoveries in science that have contribu-

ted to the health and longevity of man. Especially in biology and medicine, modern researches have been fraught with the most momentous results. The discovery of bacteria, as the causes of disease, has revolutionized the whole system of healing. Not only have such diseases as diphtheria, cancer, typhoid, and consumption become curable under the new methods, but by the antiseptic treatment the most difficult operations can be performed without danger of blood poisoning.

Another important advance in medical science was made by the discovery of anesthetics, such as chloroform and ether; not only has much pain been thereby saved, but many lives have been preserved that would otherwise have succumbed to the violence of the shock.

757. **Progress in Religion.**— After a rapid survey of the industrial and material progress of the last century, one might be tempted to ask whether a like progress has been shown in the more important sphere of religion and morality. There is no doubt that keen competition and abundance of material comfort are not very conducive to the austere practice of religion, and that the meditative lives and severe penances of the middle ages are rare. But every nation and every age has its own peculiar type of sanctity. And in our modern times, the spirit of philanthropy and charity and a zeal for the well being of the whole community are very conspicuous. At the same time, there is a great improvement among the broad masses of the community, greater enlightenment, a wider view, and above all, a greater power of self-restraint. This last quality is a special feature of the American democracy and is a most sure guarantee for a prosperous future.

Also the spirit of toleration is everywhere dominant. The obstacles of violence and persecution are removed, and the truth is allowed to appeal directly to the minds and consciences of men. "The truth is great and will prevail."

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